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ABSTRACT

This report attempts to present a state-of-the-art report on action-learning (experiential learning), share ideas and information about what is going on in the field, and promote the wider adoption of action-learning. First, the need for action-learning programs is explored. Included are discussions of one position of the Federal Government on action-learning and career education, some Congressional concerns on action-learning, and the needs and uses of action-learning programs. Following these discussions, the institutional views of action-learning are explored. Discussions in this section center on action-learning as it relates to unions, State education agencies, secondary school accreditation, college entrance examination boards, and public agencies. Next, the document examines problems in the research and evaluation of action-learning programs, and four action-learning project examples are provided. The presentation concludes with a set of findings and recommendations on action-learning and a list of the conference participants. (Author/DN)

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Conference Report of the National Committee on Secondary Education
National Association of Secondary School Principals

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AMERICAN YOUTH IN THE MID-SEVENTIES

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FOREWORD

The National Committee on Secondary Education is unique among NASSP committees. Comprised of men and women who have distinguished themselves in education and allied professions, it carries no administrative burdens or time consuming assignment details. This affords the members an open-ended opportunity to examine some of the more critical issues facing American education. In parallel with such an examination is a discerning look at the future. The study of youth in the mid-seventies combines these objectives, and the initial results of the Committee's findings are reported herewith.

Many individuals and agencies have contributed to the project and grateful appreciation is expressed to each from the parent body. The viability of the partnership is reflected in the make-up of the participants as well as the sources of financial support. The program was generously underwritten by the W. Clement and Jessie V. Stone Foundation, the White House, the U.S. Office of Education, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and Action. The U.S. Department of Labor and certain members of the Congress also have exhibited an active and continuing interest.

For the purpose of sharing ideas on how best to broaden options and establish action-learning opportunities for those in the 15-20 age bracket, a national invitational conference was held in Washington on November 30-December 1, 1972. This report summarizes the results of the conference and we commend its reading to professionals and laymen alike who share our concern for American youth in the mid-seventies.

OWEN B. KIERNAN, Executive Secretary
National Association of Secondary
School Principals

INTRODUCTION

Several task forces, research projects, professional associations, and commissions are now examining the process of growing up in America. Most of them have started from the premise that many young people are getting less than they should from school and that schooling is isolating them from opportunities and experiences they need to prepare for responsibilities in society. Many of them are examining the prospects of experiential learning or, as we call it, action-learning.

Action-learning is learning from experience and associated study that can be assessed and accredited by an educational institution. It may be in paid jobs, in non-paid volunteer work, or in personal performance, as in publishing, art, drama or music in which participant learning is an objective. Action-learning has an element of novelty; it is not menial or repetitive. It is not classroom work; it takes place in the company of other performers. Part time action-learning programs will usually complement formal study in a school or college. Full time assignments may involve guided study on the job.

There is some overlap in the work of the groups that are examining the transition from youth to adulthood, but much of their work is complementary and there is a need for more communication between the groups, for more understanding of how their work fits together, and for a sharing of information and ideas.

This booklet is compiled from materials presented at the Conference on American Youth in the Mid-70's. It attempts to present a state-of-the-art report, to share ideas and information about what is going on in the field, and to promote the wider adoption of action-learning. The booklet does not include everything that was presented at the Conference. The films and enthusiasm of the Foxfire group and the Young Film Makers of New York City can't be conveyed. But their presentation surely reinforced the notion that a lot more learning -- for an occupation and for a full life -- can be arranged outside of school buildings.

I. THE NEED FOR ACTION-LEARNING PROGRAMS

The speech by Commissioner S. Marland was presented at the Conference and reflects one of the federal government's positions on action-learning. An excerpt from a speech presented by Congressman William Steiger is also included and expresses what he feels are concerns that Congress will have regarding action-learning.

The paper "American Youth in the Mid-70's" is directed at defining the needs and uses of action-learning programs.

CAREER EDUCATION: A REPORT

Sidney P. Marland, Jr.
Assistant Secretary for Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Washington, D.C.

As you might expect, I am finding the discussions and exchanges of this conference deeply interesting and profoundly encouraging. Action learning is a compelling answer to the plight of adolescent America -- that halfway stage physically and emotionally, normally filled with confusion and uncertainty, but made so much worse in both personal and economic terms by the seeming detachment of the adult world from the concerns of the young. To find the source of the alienation that is turning young people away from the establishment -- away from our world -- we need look no further than the bright, bored, socially concerned, jobless teenager or young college graduate and try to see things as he or she sees them. This conference on American Youth in the Mid-Seventies strongly suggests that you have come to grips with the issue, difficult though it is. I congratulate you.

Action Learning Complements Career Education

I am also pleased because action learning strongly complements the idea of career education. While the general reaction to career education has been favorable since I broached it at the NASSP convention in Houston in January, 1971, there have been dissenters. Those who oppose the idea do so, they say, because they are apprehensive as to just what I have in mind and consequently fear the worst. To some of them, I am the Archie Bunker of education, bent on the Death of Intellect in the West. Just this morning, I understand, I was accused of downgrading all manner of intellectual pursuits including, of all things, the fine poetry of Langston Hughes. Now I must categorically deny that charge. I not only have read The Weary Blues -- I sometimes have them.

In any case, I would like to point out in self-defense that among the 15 job clusters that have been identified for career education development is one encompassing fine arts and humanities, a cluster that includes poet, novelist, musician, and painter. We have no intention of turning any budding Langston Hughes into a machinist, but then neither do we intend to deny any machinist an appreciation of Langston Hughes' verse. Indeed, we think they should appreciate each other -- and in that mutual understanding begin to build a new universe

of respect in which all talents, all skills, and all kinds of intellectual preparation and training are understood for the important places they individually hold in our complex and interdependent society. That is the heart of the career education idea, which some of our critics fail to see.

Preparation Needed for Life

If you ask what I had in mind that January day in Houston when I first spoke of career education, let me assure you that it was not that the Office of Education, with my novice hand at the tiller, should immediately undertake a rejection of the liberal, humanistic tradition of education in favor of a strictly pragmatic, utilitarian approach focused entirely on employment and income. But what I was thinking of, and what I tried to express, was my concern -- my fright, really -- at the continuing failure of the schools to serve fully a third of the young people attending them. I was concerned -- as those of you who have initiated action learning are obviously concerned -- with the swelling numbers of young American boys and girls listlessly, apparently helplessly, entering their names on the rolls of the unemployed, not because they lack talent, but because the schools have not given them a decent or fair preparation for the hard, competitive business of life -- including, of course, adequate job skills, but certainly not limited to that area.

The apathy and alienation of many of our young people are too profound and too pervasive to be said to be a matter of occupational unpreparedness alone. We have on our hands an entire generation of boys and girls who are rapidly becoming men and women and who fail to understand what they are to do when the transition to adulthood is complete. Inculcating that understanding is what career education is all about. And Langston Hughes, I assure you, is included.

Avoiding Precise Definitions of Career Education

Apart from the general notion that revolves around preparedness (for work, for leisure, for the manifold opportunities open to each of us, in truth, human fulfillment intellectually and occupationally) we have conscientiously avoided trying to lay down a precise definition for career education. Naturally enough, some have rushed forward to fill that vacuum. Academicians have tended to scoff -- politely, or course, at career education as a "knee-jerk reaction" to the tightening up of the employment market, particularly for young people. Jobs get scarce; therefore, the federal government decides that education in all its diverse parts should become a giant vocational training scheme. Of course, they are wrong.

And too often, I think, the vocational educators themselves have seized the idea in a very narrow sense, believing that their day has come and that, indeed, career education does mean that all

education will become vocational in nature, or something very like it. They too are wrong and I quickly add that the most thoughtful vocational education leaders agree that vocational education is an important part of career education, but only a part.

Walter Reuther once said, "Vocational education must abandon the traditional concept of job training and must take on the responsibility of preparing youths, boys and girls alike, for maximum adaptability in an economy in which job and skill demands will continue throughout their lives to be in rapid evolution." Yet the tendency among both academic and vocational educators has been to do precisely the opposite -- not to modify their traditional conceptions of educational practice in the light of swiftly changing needs and expectations, but to clutch them in a defensive reaction, perpetuating the divorcement between things occupational and things intellectual.

No Division Between Technical and Liberal Education

If there is a central message in our conception of career education, it is to cry out against this absurd partitioning of the house of education, this separation of subject from subject, of class from class, this false and destructive distinction between the liberal academic tradition on the one hand and the utilitarian-vocational tradition on the other. Our search for reform and for elevation of the world of work must not be translated into a know-nothing, indiscriminate anti-intellectualism. Much of what has been carefully reasoned and properly taught since ancient Greece and before must be preserved. But much must be constantly re-examined for its usefulness in equipping well-developed people.

Alfred North Whitehead, an educational leader of this century with unimpeachable classical credentials, had this to say:

The antithesis between a technical and a liberal education is fallacious. There can be no adequate technical education which is not liberal, and no liberal education which is not technical; that is, no education which does not impart both technique and intellectual vision. In simpler language, education should turn out the pupil with something he knows well and something he can do well.

And James Conant, distinguished chemist and teacher, president of Harvard, ambassador, and truly a man of many seasons, wrote in 1961 in his book, Slums and Suburbs:

I must record an educational heresy, or rather support a proposition that many will accept as self-evident, but that some professors of the liberal arts will denounce as dangerously heretical. I submit that in a heavily urbanized and industrialized free society the educational experiences of

youth should fit his subsequent employment. There should be a smooth transition from full-time schooling to a full-time job, whether that transition be after grade 10 or after graduation from school, college, or university.

Both Whitehead and Conant recognized that education, divorced from its proper ends and uses, must wither into irrelevancy, not only as a discipline and a profession, not only as an instrument for occupational training, but also and most critically as the essential source of democratic life. Education that is class-conscious, separating collars by color, cannot be a source of equality but of divisiveness, inevitably weakening and blurring the mutual respect and understanding upon which American society is intended to stand.

Guilty of Dividing Rather Than Combining

Career education, then, in the broadest, most philosophical sense, is really a change of mind and a change of heart. It is a humbling exercise, for it must inevitably extract from us the admission that we have sought to serve the institution of education with greater zeal than the young people themselves, that we were more anxious to preserve the status quo than to seek the necessary measure of change, and above all that we were guilty of professional snobbery in dividing our children and our curriculums according to abstract and convenient concepts rather than mixing and combining the elements -- those who learn and that which is learned -- according to apparent need. I asked you two years ago to set aside the general curriculum in our high schools and to erase the snobbish distinction between the vocational learner and the college preparatory learner. Nothing has happened in these two years to change my views.

I am particularly happy that the Office of Education has been of some assistance in the sponsorship of this conference because I believe that the action-learning concept is a product of precisely the kind of frank self-evaluation that career education demands. As Bob Havighurst, Dick Graham, and Donald Eberly have pointed out, "The existing combination of secondary schools, community colleges, job opportunities, military service, and early marriage has failed to meet the needs of several million young people." And they add, "The indications are that it will do less well in the future and that some basic changes are needed in American secondary education."

High School -- Likely Arena for Change

Action learning and career education both have particular application to the high school, which is, by all accounts, a troubled institution and the most likely arena of educational change for the balance of this decade. While there is dissatisfaction, frustration,

and a readiness for change throughout all of education, the opportunities for reform are especially timely in high school. Here, for many young men and women, childhood ends and adulthood begins, including parenthood, the ballot, and the responsibilities of a job. As students, their role in a traditional setting, as Jim Coleman says, is a passive one, "always in preparation for action, but never acting." Considering that by early 1972 unemployment among Americans 16 to 20 years of age totaled 1,350,000, we need to ask serious questions as to just how suitable their preparation for action is.

OE Panel to Produce Policy Recommendations

Consistent with the thrust of this meeting, a panel of distinguished scholars and educational practitioners are at work under the sponsorship of the Office of Education, with John Henry Martin as chairman, to analyze the problems involved in adolescent education and to produce policy recommendations in much the same manner as the Newman study group analyzed and recommended in the area of higher education. I believe that Dr. Martin's panel will have an impact on secondary education comparable to that stimulated by the Newman study in our colleges and universities. As work goes forward on preparation of the report, which is due sometime in the spring, I am happy to note that occupational training and preparation has surfaced among the committee's most critical concerns.

Career Opportunities Program in Operation

In any case, I anticipate that the Education Division of HEW -- comprised of OE and the National Institute of Education -- will be deeply involved in the further development and implementation of action-learning because it represents a healthy trend toward reality in teaching and learning. Action learning parallels in this sense other activities of the federal government such as the Career Opportunities Program, which offers a career to people who have never had one. This year more than 8,000 men and women are working part-time in neighborhood schools as classroom or library aides as part of their training under COP. All come from low-income circumstances and work with disadvantaged children they know and understand. Many are Vietnam veterans who might otherwise have landed on the streets. While working as aides, all participants are enrolled in teacher-preparation or related programs in local colleges and universities. Many will undoubtedly earn a degree, become certified teachers, and enter a professional world which otherwise would very likely have been closed to them.

I see action learning eventually producing the same kind of entree into a work situation -- in education perhaps or in other areas of the public and private sectors -- to guide the young man or woman toward a worthwhile and fulfilling professional career. If our children need anything today, they need objectives, some place to go, something to be, a sense of control over their destinies -- and action-learning

will help them to form useful goals through the disciplined and reasoned discharge of small but nevertheless very real responsibilities of the kind that were once widely available to children in this country but have virtually disappeared from our prepackaged, mechanized, punch-card era.

Four Pilot Models Under Preparation

Turning for a moment to career education itself, I can report to you that the Office of Education and the National Institute of Education are deeply and productively engaged in furthering development of the design components and preparing to help the states and localities install model programs throughout the country. During Fiscal Year 1972, OE supported a number of initiatives, including the use of some \$15 million to fund the development of four pilot models. When tested and validated in pilot schools and other training sites, these models will be made available for application in any ways practitioners see fit. Six cities -- Mesa, Ariz.; Los Angeles; Jefferson County, Colorado; Atlanta; Pontiac; and Hackensack, N.J. -- were selected to test the school-based model and some 85,000 children in these systems are now participating in at least some career orientation activities. Four sites -- Philadelphia; Charleston, W.Va.; Portland, Ore.; and Oakland, Calif. -- were chosen for the employer-based model. This model offers a new setting for academic studies and keys them to job experiences provided by a consortium of local employers such as banks, printing plants, travel agencies, labor union offices, and so on. Some 50 high school seniors in each pilot city are enrolled in this first-year prototype. If the experiment shows promise, we will build on these small numbers.

A former Air Force base near Glasgow, Mont., is the pilot site for the third model, the rural-residential. This model enables low-income families from Montana and five neighboring states to train for six to 18 months. Each member of each family learns new skills, whether for better jobs, more efficient homemaking, or further education. As of October, over 100 families were in training in Glasgow.

Finally, and still in the planning stages, is the fourth model, a home-community effort that would use television and radio programming to encourage unemployed or underemployed adults to take advantage of local retraining programs. The obligation of America's educators to provide equality of opportunity is particularly binding in the case of these millions who have grown to adulthood and now experience the cruelest kind of deprivation because it is -- or has been -- without hope. Adult education at home, on the job, in a community center or wherever it is most convenient or effective, is certainly among our principal priorities for the balance of the 1970's.

Major Efforts Under Way at OE

Responsibility for further research and development of the Career Education models was transferred in August to the National Institute of Education, OE's new sister agency created by the Education Amendments of 1972. While NIE assumed the career education research initiative, OE continued major efforts to revise curriculum, train teachers, and extend demonstration projects. And this activity will be carried forward as a major operational concern of the new Deputy Commissioner of Occupational and Adult Education, also created by the '72 Amendments.

For example, I think it is worthy of note that during this past year the staff of the Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education (which will be folded into the new Occupational Deputyship) divided the 20,000-plus career categories identified by the Department of Labor into 15 broad career clusters. A number of the country's top curriculum specialists were given contracts to develop instructional programs for the first five -- construction, manufacturing, transportation, public service, and communications and media. Pilot testing of these programs is scheduled for the 1973-74 school year.

In the National Center for the Improvement for Educational Services (OE's teacher-training center) nearly \$7 million went into training teachers and other staff in career education concepts. Some 250 vocational teachers and administrators from 56 states and territories received support for full-time Ph.D. study and, on a broader scale, states and territories received support in assessing their teacher-training needs and in developing study programs for at least 7,000 career education teachers, teacher educators, and administrators.

Nearly 700,000 children in elementary and secondary school participated in 200 career education demonstration projects supported with \$17 million under the Vocational Education Act. Another \$17 million under the same authority was channeled to enable selected schools to initiate career education planning and installation.

All in all, I think the record of our activity in 1972 is presentable, distinctly encouraging in a few of its aspects and, what is most important, readily adaptable to the new organizational structure of the Education Division of HEW which will take full effect in 1973. I assure you that as Assistant Secretary I intend to use every possible occasion for some gentle proselytizing. Though it may sometimes not seem obvious, we in the federal government do recognize that education is basically a state and local responsibility and that career education, like any educational reform, will succeed only to the degree that state and local officials and supporters of the schools accept its worth and press for its adoption. That is why we have shunned any hard and fast definitions or limitations as to what the concept may ultimately be. We will continue to try to steer the career education notion, but giving it elbow room as much as funding.

At times during the past two years I have wondered whether our message was getting through, as more and more people said, "Tell us exactly what career education is so we can do it." But, in my judgment, developing such a constraining definition at this point would be the best way to kill the whole idea.

This conference, and related activities taking place throughout the country within the broad parameters of the career education idea, reinvigorate my confidence that the ultimate definition of career education will emerge from those who are to make it work, and the final shape it assumes may be far different in San Antonio than Boston.

The message of career education is coming back to us in Washington, louder, clearer, better defined, more promising of results.

EDUCATIONAL ISSUES BEFORE THE 93RD CONGRESS
(excerpt)

Congressman William Steiger
(R) Wisconsin

Every year, 2.5 million young people drop out of high school, graduate from a "general curriculum," or drop out of college without completing a degree program. Our society has regarded this group as the "failures," for they have not "completed" the educational stream we have developed for them; we now realize that we have failed in not providing meaningful alternatives to the college preparatory course.

Career education and action-learning are designed to provide young people with counseling, skill training, and work experience to give them both an idea of possible career goals, and the ability to achieve those goals. These are exciting concepts. There are concerns, however, which I believe Congress will express regarding these programs:

First, the counseling and work experience should expose the student to a broad range of options and provide him with a solid foundation of skills in reading, writing, and basic mathematics. Our industrial technology is accelerating the pace of job obsolescence. If career education is too narrowly focused, it will cause problems as severe as those produced by the general curriculum.

Secondly, the part-time or full-time work experiences must not displace present workers or job positions; compensation and conditions of employment should be similar to those for regular employees. These conditions are not merely to "satisfy the unions," but to prevent real abuses by private and public employers.

Third, special emphasis should be placed upon the preparation and instruction of those who will supervise the work experiences. It is easy to write about "meaningful jobs," but my observation of summer intern programs indicates that it takes a sensitive supervisor to breathe life into these jobs.

Fourth, the academic community must remain accountable for the success or failure of the programs. I support the idea of students receiving academic credit for on-the-job training in private industry, but the schools must insure the adequacy of the training. I would be most reluctant to see programs develop in which the students also received their basic academic instruction on-the-job,

for the risks are too great that the effort by a private company would be narrowly focused to the needs of the company, not the student.

Fifth, as others have noted at this Conference, career education must be more than mere job preparation. The schools must also prepare young people to be intelligent consumers, effective citizens, involved parents, and they must be exposed to those studies which will enrich the quality of their lives.

Finally, I would add a philosophical consideration: compulsory servitude remains a real danger to be avoided in designing career education and action-learning programs. After all, education is compulsory up to age 16, and higher in some states. What if the state were to rigidly channel all 15-year-olds into either college prep, vocational education, or career education -- and then provide only a very narrow range of work experiences from which they would be compelled to choose? I submit that in the absence of realistic choice, such a program could constitute compulsory civilian service, with debilitating consequences for a free economy and a free society. If we have learned anything from our disastrous experience with conscription, it is that our Nation draws its strength from the ability of individuals to choose for themselves their role in society. When the state restricts this choice, it does so according to self-interested views based upon bureaucratic priorities. The process is paternalistic and inimical to creativity and free expression. It is therefore essential that options remain open for those who do not wish to partake of the work experience and -- as I noted above -- that the opportunities be as broad and flexible as possible.

We in Congress will anxiously await your proposals on this subject. I would simply caution that because of the substantial changes it will work in our educational structure, the profound philosophical implications, and the need for further supporting data, you proceed on a pilot project basis.

AMERICAN YOUTH IN THE MID-SEVENTIES

Robert J. Havighurst
Richard A. Graham
Donald J. Eberly

What it's like to be young in America changed drastically between 1960 and 1970. Opportunities for many young people growing up today are too limited. Jobs are not available, schooling seems pointless, military service is anathema, and early marriage is no solution.

Analysis of the census and labor statistics from 1960 to 1970 reveals that, while the numbers of teenagers increased by 30 percent, unemployment rates in the 15 through 20-year-old age group increased even more -- by 50 percent. At the same time, teenage marriage rates decreased substantially -- by 63 percent for non-white males (Table 1).

Trends of the '60s Continue

And the trends are persisting in the early 70s. Thus, teenage work and early marriage, traditional ways of taking adult responsibility in American society, are declining. Formal education has instead become the norm (Table 2). The number of young people remaining in school has increased, the sharpest rise occurring among 18- and 19-year-olds, a fact that is probably linked directly to the many new community colleges built during the last decade.

Robert J. Havighurst is professor of education and human development at the University of Chicago. Richard Graham is director of education programs at the ACTION Agency. Donald J. Eberly is the executive director of the National Service Secretariat.

TABLE 1

Changing Status of Youth: 1960-1970

		<u>Percentages of Total</u>		<u>Percentage Shift Over 10 Years</u>
<u>Ages: 16-21</u>		<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	
<u>Out of School</u>	White male	40.4	38.0	- 6
	Non-White male	52.9	44.1	-17
	Non-White female	58.1	49.7	-14
	White female	52.0	45.3	-13
<u>Unemployed</u> <u>(as percent</u> <u>of labor</u> <u>force)</u>	White male	9.9	12.0	+21
	Non-White male	15.3	24.9	+63
	Non-White female	17.3	31.7	+83
	White female	7.8	13.4	+72
<u>Not in Labor</u> <u>Force</u>	White male	42.1	38.4	- 9
	Non-White male	49.5	51.0	+ 3
	Non-White female	69.9	59.6	-15
	White female	61.8	50.6	-18
<u>Ages: 14-19</u>				
<u>Married</u>	White male	3.1	2.8	-10
	Non-White male	4.3	1.6	-63
	Non-White female	12.1	8.7	-28
	White female	13.3	9.6	-28

TABLE 2

Highest Educational Level Reached By Young People: 1971(Percentages)

	<u>Male</u>			<u>Female</u>		
	<u>Total</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>
<u>High School Dropout</u>	20	18	35	19	18	34
<u>High School Graduate</u>	26	24	40	38	37	48
<u>College 1-3 years</u>	30	32	14	24	25	10
<u>College Graduate</u>	25	26	11	19	20	8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Series P-20. No. 224 March, 1972.

Leaving high school before graduation to go to work is now viewed as undesirable, though more than half of America's young people did just that as late as 1940. Formal schooling has almost totally preempted other, more traditional, routes to adulthood, but formal schooling is doing nothing for a large part of the population 15 through 20 -- they've dropped out -- and it is not doing very well for another large group, those who stay on in school, graduate, but get little from it.

Almost 80 percent do graduate from high school. Thirty percent of the graduates get a paying job or become housewives; 5 percent join the unemployed; and 45 percent enter college, though less than half of them graduate four years later. As for the high school dropouts aged 15 through 20, about half take unskilled jobs or become housewives; the other half are unemployed most of the time.

Young college dropouts fare better. Most of them find work or keep house, and increasing numbers return later, either part-time or full-time, to complete their college degrees. Of those who graduate from college, most find work or go on to graduate school. But, since 1971, the number of unemployed college dropouts has increased markedly.

Unemployment Level Is Bleak

The peak level of unemployment for persons not in school now occurs at ages 18 and 19; it's roughly 16 or 17 percent for males and a little more for females, with black youth having double the unemployment rate of whites (Table 3). The problem is particularly acute in large cities; in some metro areas of New York City, for example, almost half the young people 15 through 20 are out of school and unemployed. Nationwide, this unemployed, largely apathetic or alienated group of young people presents a major problem for itself and for society. Table 3 indicates that about one young person in seven is either unemployed and looking for work or is out of school, out of a job, and not looking for work.

In addition to those who leave school or college and can't find jobs, there is another group of comparable size that remains in school but finds little pleasure or purpose in doing so. This group accepts the custodial care society provides through its educational institutions. Individuals in it, however, are dissatisfied with their lives and the society around them. Thus, for some 20 to 30 percent of American youth aged 15 through 20, school and college is an unsatisfactory experience that does little to help them find directions for a full and useful life.

More and more young people who could make it through high school and college are electing not to. Some are members of a counter culture -- a we'll-go-our-way, you-go-yours group; some, a more numerous category, are thought to represent a forerunner group, a group that

seeks "the opportunity to change things rather than make out well within the current system." (This statement represented the views of 42 percent of the 18 to 24-year-olds surveyed by David Yankelovich in 1968).

TABLE 3
Labor Force Status of Persons Aged 16-21 in 1971

Age	<u>(Percentages)</u>					
	<u>Males</u>			<u>Females</u>		
	<u>16-17</u>	<u>18-19</u>	<u>20-21</u>	<u>16-17</u>	<u>18-19</u>	<u>20-21</u>
In Military Service	1	9	18	--	--	--
Employed (Civilians)	37	50	53	28	44	52
At School, Not Working	44	24	15	49	25	13
Keeping House, Not Looking for Work	--	--	--	7	16	25
Unemployed, Looking for Work	9	9	8	7	9	6
Not at School, Not Looking for Work	8	6	4	9	5	3
Institutionalized, Unable to Work	1	2	2	--	1	1
Population (000s)	4030	3840	3440	3880	3750	3600
Unemployment Rates (%)						
White	17	14	11	17	14	10
Non-White	33	26	21	39	34	21

Until recently, society was thought to be doing better for young women than for young men. At the start of the last decade, half the young women in the United States were married by the age of 20 and had taken on what was viewed as an acceptable adult role. Very few young women were single, out of school, and unemployed. Now only 40 percent (Table 4) are married at age 20, though it isn't yet clear whether young people are rejecting marriage generally or just early marriage. Increasing numbers of young women are looking for work and

can't find it, and the changes now taking place in their values and life styles suggest that almost as many young women as young men are ill-served by the options presently available for education, employment, or family life.

TABLE 4

Marital Status of Young People, By Age, Sex, and Color: 1971

(Percent Married)

<u>Age</u>	<u>Males</u>			<u>Females</u>		
	<u>White</u>	<u>Non-White</u>	<u>Number (000)</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Non-White</u>	<u>Number (000)</u>
14-17	0.7	0.5	8,126	2.7	2.5	7,898
18	4.5	3.8		17.4	12.0	
19	12.7	3.2		29.7	26.4	
20	20.6	10.9		42.7	37.3	
21	35.6	24.3		55.0	43.6	
22	43.2	29.8		67.4	56.2	
23	57.5	33.2		77.5	61.6	
24	68.6	54.1		80.7	65.9	
18-24	34.4	21.4	13,377	52.6	41.9	12,432

A Proposal for the Mid-70's: Action-Learning

The existing combination of secondary schools, community colleges, job opportunities, military service, and early marriage has failed to meet the needs of several million young people. The indications are that it will do less well in the future and that some basic changes are needed in American secondary education, changes akin to those increasingly called for in American colleges and universities. For example, Alan Pifer, president of the Carnegie Corporation, has called for:

...the invention of viable alternatives for some young people, alternatives that are at least as productive to society, as useful to the individual, and no more costly than going to college. This is no small assignment. It means the investment of huge sums of money to create new jobs with the potential for useful learning and personal satisfaction to those who hold them. It means the invention and financing of new low-cost forms of national service. And perhaps it means some new ideas that no one has yet even thought of. (From the 1971 Annual Report of the Carnegie Corporation.)

A greatly expanded opportunity for national service in programs such as the Peace Corps or VISTA or CCC work has been suggested again and again, often as a substitute for military service, a proposal based on the notion that it would be good for the nation and for its youth if every young person served his country for a year or two.

Programs of national service have been adopted by Israel, Iran, China, and other countries. A U.S. National Youth Service Foundation has been proposed by Senator Mark Hatfield and a National Service Agency by Representative Jonathan Bingham. Both proposals include features developed by the National Service Secretariat and endorsed by over 50 prominent Americans who advocate a program of national volunteer service that enables all young people to serve and learn for one to four years in locally directed projects. Where possible, projects would be organized and directed by young people and would be locally financed. Participation would fulfill military service obligations, if any.

Other proposals have called for a compulsory, national program with domestic service accepted as an alternative to military service. Generally, the service program would be full-time, provide food and lodging, and enlist most young men and women between the ages of 19 and 21. It would be expensive -- from \$12 to \$20 billion per year according to most estimates. But a voluntary army, if it comes into being, would make moot the question of whether national service should substitute for the draft, and there are other telling arguments against it. The Scranton Report on Campus Unrest recommended:

First, national service projects, enlisting youth in a variety of civilian public service activities, should be tested. Whether in the form of pilot projects or a full-scale program, national service should be voluntary, and not, as some have proposed before this Commission and elsewhere, compulsory. (From the September 1970 Report of the Scranton Commission on Campus Unrest.)

The Task Force on the Draft and National Service of the White House Conference on Youth agreed that compulsory service would be undesirable, that for some it would be evaded as was the draft, and that for others the effects of unwilling participation would be antithetical to the acquisition of habits and values associated with a self-directed life. Instead, the conference concluded that service and the learning that accompanies it should be so attractive an alternative to conventional schooling that young people would volunteer for it.

Whether, as Alan Pifer has suggested, huge sums of money will be needed to create new jobs or to finance a compulsory service program remains to be seen. The survey undertaken by the American Youth in the Mid-70's project indicates the contrary.

A Survey of Three Cities

Three representative U.S. communities -- the metropolitan central city area of Portland, Ore., the part of the metropolitan fringe area of Washington, D.C., that includes Prince George's County, Md., and a non-metropolitan area, that of Sheboygan County, Wisc. -- were surveyed in the spring of 1972 by the Youth in the Mid-70's project to determine how many jobs could be filled by 15- through 20-year-olds.

Schools, hospitals, waste recovery projects, day care centers, sanitariums, and other local agencies described hundreds of volunteer jobs waiting to be filled by young people. But indications were that high schools and community colleges need to know more about the ways in which educational objectives can be achieved through experience. They need to know more about developing, with the agencies and the students, work projects in which the experience would build upon more traditional learning and complement it.

The survey indicated that still more jobs would open up if the schools or some other agency could provide transportation to and from work, could cover costs of insurance and supervision and could prepare students, in advance, to meet entry-level skill specifications. Under these circumstances, there would be enough jobs to provide every 15- through 20-year-old in the areas surveyed with almost three hours of service-learning opportunities a week, some in jobs that require only a few hours each week, others in full-time work for a half year or more. Instead of working part-time over a six-year period, one-half of all young people in America could work full time for a school year as a part of growing up.

Public service employers interviewed expressed willingness to develop job descriptions and entry-level skill criteria, but they want to select and fire and to work closely with the sending institution in developing the programs. Some would provide on-the-job training, some would merely specify required skills such as typing speed; others would specify courses that must be taken in advance. The most common criterion mentioned was "genuine interest in the work." "We don't want people others are trying to save." Where a preference was stated, it was for action-learning volunteers who would serve part-time for an extended period -- preferably a year -- rather than full-time for a shorter period such as six weeks.

Some public service employers wanted volunteers only if money or personnel were provided for their supervision. If the sending institution -- the high school, community college, or continuing education center -- can't supply it, then some form of federal or local subsidy appears necessary, at least during the initial phase of action-learning programs. And most sending institutions appeared to need help in project development and in supervisor training.

Action-learning projects have been developed by secondary schools and colleges but also by state and local youth organizations such as the YMCA, YWCA, or Scouts. The schools would continue to do most of the accrediting, but other authorized agencies might award a high school certificate or could offer preparation, through service and related study, for the College Level Examination Program.

Generally, action-learning employment would be part-time and related to other study. Academic credit would be given for what was learned, not just for the experience itself. Participants would live at home, and would be unpaid except in cases that required an income for subsistence.

There are many who do need financial help when a paying job that offers learning opportunities is not available. As noted in the January 1969 Manpower Report of the President, over a third of the 11 million chronically poor in 1968 who could escape poverty through work were young people -- "about four million are youth under 21, either out of school and facing peculiarly difficult problems of initial adjustment to the world of work, or still in school full-time and in need of a part-time job to meet their living expenses." And that was 1968 when the official unemployment level of those 16 to 20 was only 835,000. By early 1972, it was 1,350,000, and neither figure includes those who hadn't registered as unemployed.

Action-learning for many of the poor would have to be accompanied by a stipend, but, for most young people, it would require only out-of-pocket expenses for transportation or materials. The costs, including those of project development, of developing individual programs of learning for each student, and for supervision of work and study appear to be within range of the present costs for conventional high school and community college study.

Action-learning thus would provide another avenue for growing up, another way of transition from adolescence to adulthood. Action-learning offers an alternative not just for those who have little hope of making it in school and who would otherwise drop out, not just for those who pass on from grade to grade finally to graduate from high school or community college barely able to read with little sense of purpose or habit of self-direction, and not just for those of the counter culture and the forerunners who reject what they view as an overly rigid process of socialization by a society they would oppose or amend. Action-learning offers an alternative for all, a needed alternative for the increasingly information-rich, action-poor world of the young. According to James Coleman:

Although the school is no longer necessary to provide information, it is more important than ever in developing skills for the management of information. The school of the future

must focus on those activities that in the past have largely been accomplished outside school: first, productive action with responsibilities that affect the welfare of others, to develop the child's ability to function as a responsible and productive adult; and second, the development of strategies for making use of the information richness and information-processing capabilities of the environment...a much broader conception of learning is necessary: a conception in which the roles, constraints, demands, and responsibilities of adulthood in a complex society are central; a conception in which experience once again becomes important. (From "Education in Modern Society," an address by James S. Coleman, professor of social relations, Johns Hopkins University.)

Action-learning in volunteer public service would not replace on-the-job learning in private employment. Indeed, the separation between economic and educational institutions would become less pronounced. The educational benefits expected from work, or from a combination of work and related study, would be defined so that they could be assessed and attested to as learning as legitimate as that acquired through attendance at a school or college. As Coleman notes, "The conception of full-time education up to a given age, followed by full-time work, would be replaced by a continuing mix beginning at an early age and running through adulthood."

But, while the numbers of private sector jobs available to persons 20 and under could be increased substantially through educational vouchers or other forms of subsidy to private employers, the trend is now in the opposite direction. Fewer paying jobs are available to greater numbers of young people. The principal increases in opportunities for learning as a byproduct of work will, therefore, occur in volunteer service jobs. In the period from 1960 to 1970, the increase in service employment far outstripped overall employment (Table 5). The Census data of 1960 and 1970 indicates an overall increase in service employment of 49 percent.

The increase in action-learning opportunities is probably as great and, as indicated by the survey of three representative U.S. communities, perhaps greater. Educational institutions provide the most opportunities for service, as tutors, aides, and peer counselors. These opportunities can be expected to expand further as school principals and community agencies become aware of designs for volunteer service projects that are working well elsewhere. And in just the past few years, the opportunity for action-learning in other areas has increased extraordinarily: in work connected with environmental protection, in lead-based paint detection and removal, in water and air pollution control, in the reprocessing of waste products. In still other fields such as probationary work, drug rehabilitation, and recreational programs, well-prepared young people have shown that they can do as well as their elders. And they learn in the process, often as much and in some ways more than in school.

TABLE 5

Employment in Civilian Service Fields: 1970

		<u>Full-time Equivalent</u>			
	<u>Total</u>	<u>All Federal</u>	<u>State</u>	<u>Local</u>	<u>All Private</u>
TOTAL SERVICES	22,373	1,653	2,302	6,226	12,192
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES	5,489	19	803	3,455	1,212
Elementary and Secondary	3,766		16	3,335	415
College and University	1,537		722	119	696
Other Education					
HEALTH SERVICES	4,284	193	482	469	3,140
Hospitals	2,746		433	398	1,915
Other Health	1,345		49	71	1,225
ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICES	730	221	131	328	50
Natural Resources	377	221	131	25	
Sewerage	61			61	
Sanitation, other	175			125	50
Local Parks and Recreation	117			117	
SOCIAL SERVICES	763		262	260	241
Public Welfare	250		97	153	
Housing & Urban Renewal	55			55	
Correction	142		90	52	
Employment Secur. Admin.	75		75		
Legal	241				241
PROTECTION SERVICES					
(Non-military)	670	30	56	584	
Police	480	30	56	394	
Fire, local	190			190	
OTHER SERVICES	10,437	1,190	568	1,130	7,549
Highways	951	5	297	271	378
Postal	731	731			
Library, local	57			57	
Utilities & Transportation	4,787			267	4,520
Water	324			110	214
Electricity	341			56	285
Transit, local & inter-city	382			92	290
Tel and Tel	969				969
Gas	171			9	162
Railroad	621				621
Air Transportation	354			13	341
Radio and TV	141				141
Trucking & Warehousing	1,117				1,117
Other Utilities	240				240

TABLE 5 (cont.)

		<u>Full-time Equivalent</u>			
	<u>Total</u>	<u>All Federal</u>	<u>State</u>	<u>Local</u>	<u>All Private</u>
OTHER SERVICES					
General building contr.*	997				997
Special trade contr.*	1,654				1,654
Plumbing, Heating a-c	400				400
Painting, paper hanging	127				127
Electrical	286				286
Masonry, stonework, plaster	212				212
Roofing & sheet metal	120				120
Other	509				509
Other Services	1,260	454	271	535	

Sources:

Federal, State and Local columns from:
Public Employment in 1970, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of
 the Census, Tables 1 and 3.

All private column from:
Employment and Earnings, Vol. 17, No. 6, December 1970, Table B-2.

NOTE: Certain private sector employment is included since it represents
 a source of supervisors.

The survey of the three U.S. communities revealed that many, perhaps most, school administrators and local agency heads were unfamiliar with action-learning programs. Their estimates of the numbers of action-learning opportunities are, therefore, apt to prove conservative. There is then strong reason to have confidence in the survey data indications that some four million young people could be employed full-time for one year in action-learning programs (Table 6), or that almost every one of the 22 million young Americans 15 through 20 could be employed for over three hours per week. More likely, a mix would occur: some would be employed full-time for a spell; most would engage in part-time employment.

Young people want this change. The 1970 National Institute of Student Opinion Poll showed that more than twice as many high school juniors and seniors would favor rather than oppose work in the community for academic credit as a requisite for graduation. And a recent poll of the participants in the University Year for ACTION program showed that 83 percent of them felt that they had learned more in their year of service and job-related activities than in their conventional college study.

TABLE 6

Estimated Needs and Educational Requirements for
National Service Participants*
(numbers in thousands)

	Need	Minimum Academic Background			
		H.S. Dropout	H.S. Grad.	Some College	College Grad.
TOTAL	4,030	1,340	1,470	935	285
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES	1,000	205	420	270	105
Tutors	600	100	300	180	20
Teacher aides	300	100	100	80	20
Teachers	60	--	--	--	60
Public media aides	40	5	20	10	5
HEALTH SERVICES	900	215	405	230	50
Health aides	800	200	350	210	40
at hospitals	600	150	250	170	30
outside hospitals	200	50	100	40	10
Mental health aides	100	15	55	20	10
at institutions	50	10	25	10	5
outside institutions	50	5	30	10	5
ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICES	800	600	110	50	40
Conservation aides	500	400	50	30	20
Pollution & sanitation aides	100	60	20	10	10
Beautification aides	100	70	20	5	5
Park development aides	100	70	20	5	5
SOCIAL SERVICES	560	110	210	210	30
Day care aides	200	30	100	65	5
Welfare aides	200	30	50	110	10
Parole & Probation aides	20	5	10	5	--
Prison aides	20	5	10	5	--
Geriatric aides	50	20	20	10	--
Settlement house aides	50	20	20	10	--
Legal aides	20	--	--	5	15
PROTECTION SERVICES	300	60	155	65	20
Police aides	200	25	120	45	10
Fire aides	50	20	15	10	5
Highway safety aides	50	15	20	10	5
OTHER SERVICES	470	150	170	110	40
Public works aides	200	100	70	25	5
Recreation aides	100	20	50	25	5
Library aides	50	--	15	30	5
Mayor's aides	20	5	5	5	5
Others	100	25	30	25	20

One effect of adding action-learning to the pattern of growing up in America would be a pronounced drop in the rate of unemployment. High school attendance or its equivalent would increase as potential dropouts come to view action-learning as a desirable alternative to classroom study, as an activity which complements it. Some would be persuaded to participate in action-learning because of the stipends paid on the basis of their need. For them, as well as for others who received no stipend, action-learning would constitute a guaranteed employment opportunity program. Action-learning would, in effect, provide employment of first resort for the young, an opportunity to grow up in a world that is not only information-rich but action-rich as well.

*Eberly, Donald J., The Estimated Effect of a National Service Program on Public Service Manpower Needs, Youth Employment, College Attendance and Marriage Rates. Russell Sage Foundation, January 1970, Table A.

APPENDIX
The Questionnaire

Activity Being Surveyed

Date:

Name:

Address:

Telephone: () _____

Director (or Principal, etc.) : _____

Name and Title of Individual : _____
responding to survey
(if different from above) _____

Number of Staff Personnel : _____

Number of persons served : _____
(students, patients,
inmates, etc.)

Hours and Days of Operation : _____

Operate year-round? _____
Operate weekends/holidays? _____

Name of Interviewer : _____

Telephone(s) : () _____

Survey conducted (check one) In person : _____
By Telephone : _____

Interviewer's Comments:

1. How many young people aged 15-20, inclusive, would your activity accept under a program of service-learning coordinated by the local secondary school system? Please answer on two bases: (see Tables A and B)
 - a. If your activity simply provides the job descriptions and defines specific entry-level skills necessary, how many such young people would you accept ---
 - 1) If on a full-time basis only? _____
(Full-time is used here to represent 8 hours per day, 5 days per week.)
 - 2) If on a part-time basis only? _____
(Please define what your requirements for part-time would be. How many hours per day, how many days per week, etc.)
 - 3) _____ full-time and _____ part-time?
 - 4) Which would you prefer -- full-time, part-time, or both?
 - b. If your activity must take full responsibility for the selection, training, supervision, and whatever costs there may be for transportation, meals, insurance and the like, how many would you accept --
 - 1) If on a full-time basis only? _____
 - 2) If on a part-time basis only? _____
(Again, please define)
 - 3) _____ full-time and _____ part-time?
 - 4) Which would you prefer -- full-time, part-time, or both?

2. Would you require any specific ages or educational levels of the 15-20 year olds? If so, please specify, with reasons.

No preference: 68%

Ages 17-20: 32%

3. Would you require any specific entry-level skills or talents of any, or all, of the young people you would accept? If so, please specify, with reasons.

4. How long could the individual young people expect to be at your activity?

a. Calendar year 47%

b. Full school year 50%

c. Part of school year
- Semester
- Quarter

d. Summer 1%

e. Other (specify)

5. a. What types of work would the young people be expected to do?

(See Table C)

b. Do written job descriptions exist now for the positions?
Yes No or,

c. If not, would job descriptions be written?
Yes 96% No 3%

d. By whom?

6. Could the young people expect to move to progressively more responsible jobs as time progresses?

7. a. Could/would your activity provide any necessary training, or should other specific activities provide it? If others, please specify with reasons.

Yes 96%

No 4%

b. Would your activity assist in a pre-service training program administered by the schools involved?

8. What staff changes, if any, would be necessitated within your activity as a result of such a program?

a. If a staff increase is necessary, would you still request young people be sent to your activity?

Yes 39%

No 15%

No answer 46%

b. Would your activity pay all, or part, of the salaries for any needed staff increases?

Yes 21%

No 33%

No answer 46%

TABLE A

Action-Learning Hours per Week Adjusted for
Total Population of Respective Areas

<u>By Geographic Area</u>	<u>1(a)-Little Cost</u>	<u>1(b)-Full Cost</u>
Portland	51,521	24,082
Prince George's County	182,640	31,705
Sheboygan County	<u>28,675</u>	<u>8,165</u>
TOTAL	262,836	63,952
 <u>By Service Area</u>		
Education	187,088	46,021
Health	13,114	6,022
Environmental	1,232	360
Social	45,207	8,087
Protection	6,172	1,393
Other	<u>10,023</u>	<u>2,069</u>
TOTAL	262,836	63,952

TABLE B

Action-Learning Hours per Week Adjusted for Total
Population of Respective Areas, by Service Function.

	<u>Total for Three Sites</u>			
	<u>Little Cost Option a</u>	<u>Hours/week* per person</u>	<u>Full Cost Option b</u>	<u>Hours/week* per person</u>
Education	187,088	1.90	46,021	0.45
Elem & Sec	170,338		31,161	
Other	16,750		14,860	
Health	13,114	0.14	6,022	0.06
Hospitals	3,260		500	
Nursing Homes	5,229		4,668	
Mental Health	3,377		561	
Other	1,248		293	
Environmental	1,232	0.01	360	-
National Res	440		120	
Other	792		240	
Social	45,207	0.45	8,087	0.09
Day Care	20,030		1,600	
Welfare	3,794		2,212	
Paroles Probation	216		96	
Geriatrics	808		414	
Legal	230		0	
Youth Service	3,980		1,845	
Other	16,149		1,920	
Protection	6,172	0.06	1,393	0.01
Police, Sheriff	2,273		1,393	
Fire, Rescue	3,899		0	
Other	10,023	0.10	2,069	0.02
Public Works	0		0	
Recreation	7,335		1,070	
Library	1,258		119	
Mayor's Office	160		0	
Other	1,270		880	
		2.66		0.63

* Exact figures not yet final

TABLE C

Examples of Tasks for Which Action-Learning Participants Are Needed

Semi-Professional

Interview People
 Conduct Survey
 Develop Youth Programs
 Write Book Reviews
 Tutor and Teacher's Aides
 Counseling
 Write Pamphlets
 Coordinate Volunteers
 Health Education
 Library Research
 Recreation Supervisor
 Storytelling to Children

Clerical

Secretary
 File Clerk
 Typist
 Switchboard Operator

Skilled

Graphics
 Reproduction
 Transport Children & Adults
 Maintain Equipment
 Physical Therapy
 Key Punching
 Music
 Drawing Maps
 Planning Exhibits

Semi-Skilled and Unskilled

Shelve Books	Janitorial Work
Correct Papers	Laundry
Craftsman Aide	Housekeeping
Nurses Aide	Forestry Aides
Laboratory Aide	Park Maintenance
Fill out Forms	Make Braille Books and Talking Books

II. INSTITUTIONAL VIEWS

The following papers are edited versions of statements prepared for the Conference by representatives of organized labor, state educational agencies, secondary school administrators, and accrediting/testing agencies. They suggest the support which might be obtained, or the opposition encountered, for the development of large scale programs of action-learning from those institutions that would influence, direct, or be affected by action-learning. The authors of these papers were asked to consider several specific issues and others of their own choosing. The papers of Drs. Childress, Sanders, and Stanavage generally represent a response to the questions asked in connection with policies for accreditation and funding of action-learning programs.

UNIONS, EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

John A. Sessions
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Proposals to move education out of the classroom can best be understood in the context of the general situation confronting American education today.

During recent years there have been deep dissatisfactions with the public schools. These have led to a wide range of proposals, many of them designed not so much to reform the public school system as to create substitutes for it. At the very extreme edge of these critics is Ivan Illich who, in his book The Deschooling of Society, argues that the schools do so much more harm than good that the interests of education would be best served by abolishing them. Given his unlikely name and his preposterous thesis, it is tempting to think that Ivan Illich is a practical joke dreamed up by some Madison Avenue wits during an after-work happy hour. He is nevertheless very real. A few years ago Illich's arguments would have been dismissed as hair-brained and irresponsible; today they are seriously discussed as a rational guide to public policy.

All-out opposition to public schools, of course, is nothing new. Ivan Illich is only the newest spokesman for what is a very old tradition. Many writers have had their fun at the expense of poor old Governor Berkeley of Virginia who said in 1670: "I thank God there are no free schools, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years, for learning has brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world."

Less well known is the fact that Karl Marx at the other end of the political spectrum was equally opposed to public education. In his Critique of the Gotha Program he wrote: "Elementary education by the state is altogether objectionable. Government and church should be equally excluded from any influence upon the school." Even more surprising, Marx, in the same tract, went on to oppose the prohibition of child labor, arguing that by being employed at productive labor, children were best able to learn the all important lesson of class consciousness. Ivan Illich clearly has his roots in both right and left ideology!

Not since the public schools were first established has there been such determined pressure as there is now to find ways of providing public funds for non-public education.

The bad-mouthing of public education has been indulged in by no less a person than Sidney Marland, Assistant HEW Secretary for Education, who said of the schools: "Millions of children are processed through the classrooms of this Nation every year in a kind of mindless shuffle that hardly deserves the name of education." Marland, not willing to accept the drastic solution of Ivan Illich, seeks to completely redirect the goals of public education, making its total focus on "career education."

It is a part of the mythology surrounding career education that the schools have been obsessed with higher education, totally ignoring the preparation of students for the world of work. In actual fact, the schools have not been nearly as much college oriented as is generally supposed. Enrollment in vocational schools and enrollment in higher education have been just about equal, with a few more students in vocational education than in higher education. Career education is a concept which has great merit, but the rhetoric which surrounds it leaves much to be desired.

Given the persistent belief that the history of public education has so far been a record of unrelieved and dismal failure, it is not surprising that there have recently been a wide variety of proposals which in one way or another would move education out of the classroom and into the larger community. Among these are plans modeled after Philadelphia's Parkway "school without walls" and the Office of Education's "employer-based model" for career education.

The notion that the community and the work-place can provide a valuable learning experience is again, of course, not an altogether new one. Unions have long and enthusiastically participated in at least one such learning program: it is called apprenticeship.

A leading art critic once said of Salvador Dali, "The mere fact that a great artist was once called a damned fool does not in itself prove that every damned fool is thereby a great artist." In somewhat the same vein, it does not necessarily follow that because useful education sometimes takes place in a factory, everything which takes place in a factory is educational nor does it follow that everything pertaining to education should take place in a factory.

I want then to set forth a few standards, safeguards, and guidelines which seem to me needed in planning educational experiences outside of the classroom.

First of all, I want to insist that the individual is not simply a producer. He is a total person and education must be concerned with the self-fulfillment of that total person. In the words of a resolution adopted by the 1965 Convention of the AFL/CIO, "There is no better test of the success of a democracy than what it does to enable each of its members to discover the best that is in himself."

In his 1971 address to the convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Sidney Marland said: "All our efforts as educators must be bent on preparing students either to become properly, usefully employed immediately upon graduation from high school or to go on to further formal education. Anything else is dangerous nonsense." He does not say "more of our efforts" or even "most of our efforts"; he says "all of our efforts." Evidently Dr. Marland would relegate to his category of dangerous nonsense, music appreciation, nature study, geography, consumer education, and the works of both Shakespeare and Langston Hughes. After all, only a limited number of students will ever use any of these subjects in their employment.

Dr. Marland's statements, not the study of Shakespeare, constitute dangerous nonsense. Yet his views have been faithfully parroted by those who hope to get career education grants for their favorite projects. In a paper prepared for the National Association of State Boards of Education, Bill Wesley Brown of California's Chico State College writes: "Unless students are able to see that the knowledge and skills normally associated with mathematics, science, language arts, and the like are those knowledges and skills required for success in their chosen careers, it is not likely that the concept of career education will be successful."

At least Professor Brown has a place in his curriculum for the study of music. He writes, "Electives such as music should enable the pupil to develop wholesome and positive attitudes toward work and a knowledge of how important work is to individuals in an expanding industrial society." Evidently his music curriculum would consist of the use of Music by Muzak to increase workers' productivity.

This is one of the greatest dangers in the present preoccupation with career education, that our schools will be turned into pure and simple job training institutions and that the ultimate test of effective education will come to be whether or not the students are able to hold jobs when they finish. Socrates was never much at making a living; Archie Bunker has a steady job. By the standards of some who write about career education, Archie Bunker is a well educated man and Socrates was not.

It may well be that there are some employers who are interested in the schools only as institutions for developing an efficient work force, but this is certainly not the view of the labor movement. Unions are of course concerned that individuals be able to enter the work force and that they receive the training which can enable them to do so. But unions see jobs, not as an end in themselves, but as a means to a self-fulfilling life. Unions exist primarily to improve the conditions of those who already hold jobs.

Education must prepare people for the world of work, but it must also prepare them to be intelligent consumers when they spend their earnings, it must prepare them to be effective members of their family group and effective citizens of their communities and of their world, and it must prepare them to enrich the quality of their lives.

So much then for my first concern. Education can very well take place in or out of the classroom, but it must never reduce the student to the dimensions of a robot whose only function is to be a productive unit in the economy.

My second concern may seem a bit old fashioned. I am convinced that teaching is a highly skilled profession. Students can learn a great deal in work places, but they will learn it better if the learning takes place under the direction of a professionally qualified teacher. I have never attempted to milk a cow, but I am vain enough to think that I could develop a better curriculum on how to do it than could most dairy farmers. They have their skills and I have mine, and it is important to know that our skills are quite different and equally valuable. The people who do the world's work are not necessarily the best ones to teach how it is done.

My third concern is closely related to that second one. It is certainly true that vital educational experiences can take place outside of the classroom. A great deal of this kind of education takes place without being planned. The child who takes a walk through the woods or perceptively explores the contents of an alley can be engaging in valuable self-directed education. The youth who has his first brush with the law and is brought before the juvenile court can learn a great deal about the process of government that is likely for forever to escape those of his classmates who manage to stay out of trouble.

Valuable though it is, however, that kind of educational experience is a random sort of thing which is no practical substitute for an education which is planned with a direction, with an identifiable purpose and with goals. It is with this more systematic education that I am primarily concerned in this paper.

Now the child walking through the woods does not become involved in questions of educational governance. His learning is unplanned and it therefore requires no planner. But an education which is to be designed must have designers. I am concerned to know, if a planned educational experience is designed to take place outside of the classroom, who will do the designing and the planning.

In this regard, I find grave dangers in the Office of Education announcements that of four models for career education, one is to be an "Employer-based Model." According to the Office of Education: "The program will be operated by a consortia [sic] of employers. Each consortium will encourage the assistance and active support of diverse community elements, such as unions, schools, parents, PTA's and Chambers of Commerce."

Under the proposal, employers would "create, develop and operate" a career education program for students from 13 to 20 years old, combining classroom teaching with on-the-job experience.

Now, if words have any meaning at all, the Office of Education is clearly saying that employers will operate the program and that unions will be invited only to assist and support it. Common sense should tell the O.E. officials that no union is likely to accept that kind of arrangement.

What is needed is not simply a change in language, but rather a total change of the entire concept. Publicly financed education must be responsible to public education authorities. To the extent that employers and unions participate in the educational process, it can only be as equals. There is every reason to utilize the total resources of a community in developing a program of career education provided that it is on a basis of equality and provided ultimate responsibility rests with public school authorities.

It is quite possible that General Motors could take students and show them how to become automobile workers, but it is not very likely that General Motors will teach them much about how to shop for the best values when buying an automobile. Holding the component pieces together into an educational whole must remain the responsibility of professional educators and public education authorities. Anything else will serve only the fragmented need of total self-fulfillment.

Finally I want to discuss a fourth concern which is actually a cluster of concerns. Inevitably, when unions consider education outside the classroom, they give especially close scrutiny to

projects which involve on-the-job educational experiences. It is, after all, here that education and the daily life of union members are most likely to impinge.

Properly conceived, work experience can have great educational value, even for young people who eventually devote their lives to something quite different. No less a person than George Bernard Shaw testified to this when he once wrote: "I owe all of my success in life to hard work; I did one day of it and it taught me a lesson which I never forgot!"

Unions, since they first came into existence, have been committed to the learning value of work experience. The apprenticeship program is predicated upon this conviction. But the apprenticeship program is also predicated upon the conviction that working on a job is a necessary but by no means sufficient part of the learning process. Apprenticeship is a carefully designed program combining on-the-job training with classroom instruction, and the design is developed by the apprenticeship councils which are cooperative endeavors of unions, employers and government. Apprenticeship is actually the polar opposite of the view which holds that the individual can be pronounced educated when he is once able to hold a job.

One of the most valuable concepts in the Vocational Education Act of 1963, one which has been enlarged upon in much of the present discussion of career education, is the need to bring vocational education and academic education closer together. The ability not simply to read, but to read with critical judgment is as much a part of the skill needed by an auto mechanic as the ability to use precision gauges. And at the risk of seeming grim, the ability to saw a board with reasonable accuracy is a useful skill for the child who would grow up to be a brain surgeon.

Working and learning have too long been separated. In the one room country schoolhouse they were rather closely related, but, like a nagging married couple, they soon separated. Rejoining them in a still more meaningful relationship is a project which holds great promise.

During the years that I served as a member of the Washington, D.C. Board of Education we had a rather limited work-study program. It was designed for students who had been identified as having a high potentiality of dropping out of school. We evaluated the results of this program in three high schools, all of them with a high proportion of economically disadvantaged students: Eastern, Dunbar and Cardozo. The results were astonishing. During the

period covered in the study 17.5 percent of the total student body in the three schools became dropouts. Yet among the work-study students the dropout rate was only 1.8 percent. In other words the dropout rate was nearly 1000 percent higher for the total student population than it was for the work-study students, even though the work-study students had been identified as especially dropout prone.

There is, of course, a tremendous difference between a work-study program and a program which seeks educational potential in on-the-job experience. No one presumed that the jobs to which the Washington high school students were assigned had any significant educational component in themselves. Their sole purpose was to provide income maintenance as a way of motivating the students to stay in school and of providing them with a sense of their own worth. In present discussions we are more concerned with the added factor of work which is planned in such a way as to be in and of itself an extension of the educational program. Planning such a work experience must be regarded as an aspect of curriculum building, a joint planning venture of the schools, industry and labor if it is to fulfill its intended purpose.

There is a further question which needs to be faced frankly. Discussions about learners in the work place tend to proceed with equanimity until the conversation becomes sullied by the practical subject of remuneration.

Therein is another feature of the apprenticeship system which is relevant to our thinking about on-the-job education. The planned apprenticeship work experience takes place within a framework of negotiated wage rates for learners. If on-the-job education is to succeed in America, it, like the apprenticeship program, will need to succeed on the basis of maintaining the basic standards of wages and hours and working conditions which have been established over the years. Organized labor wholeheartedly supports job-related education, just as it has wholeheartedly supported apprenticeship programs, but labor will not permit the erosion of the negotiated wage structure. Nor will labor permit violations of the child labor laws in the name of education.

These standards did not come about as a result of accident or willfulness. They were established with great effort in order to deal with real problems. In 1808, for example, an employer by the name of Isaac Burneston inserted the following advertisement in a Baltimore newspaper:

This Manufactory will go into operation, in all this month, where a number of boys and girls from 8 to 12 years of age are wanted, to whom constant employment and encouraging wages will be given . . . This being the first essay of the kind in this city, it is hoped that those citizens having a knowledge of families who have children destitute of employ, will do an act of public benefit, by directing them to this institution.

It is quite clear from his language that Isaac Burneston had a rather good image of himself. He had a method of keeping the kids off from the streets, reducing youth unemployment, and waging an effective war against juvenile delinquency. It is also quite clear that beneath Isaac Burneston's kindly countenance was the soul of an absolute monster who proposed to get rich by working eight year old children in a sweatshop from sun-up to sun-down.

When, on a previous occasion, I referred to this same document, I rather unexpectedly found myself accused of anti-semitism. Let me therefore note for the record that Isaac Burneston was a Quaker of unquestioned piety.

Today there is enormous pressure, under the name of helping young people get to work, to relax negotiated wage rates and even minimum wage laws and in other ways to whittle away at the standards which separate the work force of today from the world of Isaac Burneston.

If educationally designed work experiences involve unusual training costs for the employer, if the student worker is not able to perform as the employer expects his regular apprentices to perform, then the answer is not to lower the pay scales but to provide subsidization for the employer. Subsidization should only be provided not by tax credibility but by contract and only where the employer can demonstrate that the costs of the training are substantial. Here again, it is evident that planning the work experience must be a cooperative effort of the schools, the employers, and the unions.

Finally there is the closely related question which looms largest of all. To what extent will student learners be competitive to already employed workers? The answer to the question is by no means an easy one and again it requires the careful preliminary planning of educators, employers, and union representatives. An answer which may be completely valid in one community can be altogether wrong in another community a hundred miles away. The climate of employment is such that a good solution for today

might well prove disastrous to the program next year. It is imperative that there be searching and continuous review and monitoring of all on-the-job educational programs.

Clearly on-the-job education will only work at its best in a full employment economy and this is a matter which transcends the setting of educational policy. But it is also a matter in which the educational community and organized labor should have a profound community of interest.

In 1970 I took part in the development of an unusual and imaginative work-study program in Connecticut. The project grew out of a unique cooperative effort involving the University of Hartford, Central Connecticut State College and Southern Connecticut State College; the school systems of Hartford, Bridgeport and New Haven; the Connecticut State Commission for Higher Education; and the Connecticut State Building and Construction Trades Council, the International Union of Operating Engineers, and the AFL/CIO Education Department.

The program was designed to place approximately 30 school teachers on summer construction jobs and to provide all-day Saturday seminars. The participating universities agreed to provide six credits toward graduate degrees to the participating teachers. The teachers were selected from those who regularly teach in the 5th through the 9th grades. The hope of the program was that a teacher's ability to present a fair picture of occupational opportunities would be enhanced by his own experience with such occupations.

All of the groups involved showed unlimited enthusiasm for the project. And yet the project fell far short of its sponsors' hopes. The reason was quite simple. In the summer of 1970 the bottom fell out of the construction industry in Connecticut and the unions could not find jobs for their own members, let alone for an influx of school teachers. Although the project did go on it was only on a limited basis and only a small fraction of the planned number of teachers were able to participate.

The lesson is quite clear. On-the-job education programs don't work in periods of substantial unemployment. Usually the question is posed in terms of anxieties about students displacing employed workers. The Connecticut project demonstrated that this is not likely to be the case. Under conditions of widespread unemployment, it is the educational program which will go down the drain, at least in unionized industries. Unions have a necessary self-interest that requires them to protect the job rights of their own members before going on to provide educational experiences for others.

The only place that students can be placed on jobs in a period of heavy unemployment is in marginal industries which are not unionized and which utilize minimal skills. In some of the discussions of employer-based career education it has been seriously proposed that neighborhood laundromats might be a useful source of learning jobs. The suggestion has a kind of negative usefulness. First of all, this is the kind of job which offers only the most limited opportunity for growth to the student. But secondly, few small laundromats employ more than one person. This would inevitably be an instance of a student's learning experience causing the displacement of an employed adult, and at that, usually an adult of marginal employability who would have great difficulty finding other work. In such industries student workers could only aggravate existing unemployment and there would be little or no potential for educational opportunities.

Whether it is the organized construction industry or the unorganized corner laundromats, there can be very little meaningful future for on-the-job education in a period of slack employment.

All in all, on-the-job educational programs then can be a valuable part of the total educational experience provided that they are controlled by public education authorities as a component of a complete curriculum, provided that employers, unions and other relevant community groups participate in the initial and continuous planning on a basis of equality, and provided that as a nation we adopt policies designed to create a full-employment economy.

REMARKS ON ACTION LEARNING
FROM POINT OF VIEW OF A
STATE EDUCATION AGENCY

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Action Learning: A Definition

The following is suggested as a definition of Action Learning: Action Learning Programs are programs with educational objectives under the supervision of the established school authorities which take place away from the usual school facilities under the immediate direction of persons who are not employees of established school authorities.

State Funds for Action Learning

1. A school board or other local education agency (LEA) can qualify for average daily attendance (ADA or ADM) assistance if, in its judgment, educational objectives for certain youth may be best achieved at different sites, with different personnel, using different training methods and different methods of supervision or evaluation from those used currently in the schools of the community. An LEA (school board) may contract for a program of experience, on an innovative or experimental basis, that appears to deliver educational services in a manner more suitable for certain youth than those available in the regular school and still receive the state ADA grant for such pupils. However, the local education agency cannot delegate its authority and responsibility for seeing to it that the education objectives are attained. It is a local education agency that is held responsible and accountable by state law.

A program for action-learning must be drawn up by the LEA in concert with the employer institution or community agency involved. The LEA must approve the objectives and the program design, must provide supervision, and must provide for evaluation. On this basis the LEA may contract with a company or proprietary school or make agreements with other governmental agencies.

In some states LEA presently contracts with private driver education schools and with schools providing education for the handicapped. Agreements for work study programs have been entered into with private industry, but the courts have declared certain arrangements illegal, such as the use of parochial schools.

Student Cost Sharing Prohibitions

2. When jobs have been arranged between the employer, the student and the school authorities for learning and for supervision, there can be no charge to the high school pupil for any part of the cost. Public education is free. There can be no means tests; question of ability to pay for such public education cannot arise. The employer should receive value from the work performed and the student must be paid for whatever work he performs during on-the-job training. Any payment to be received by the employer for instruction must be from the school authorities and safeguards must be established so that there be no "kickbacks."

3. Learning to achieve through Action Learning should be measured and accredited. The local education authority with the assistance of the state can develop through its agents and through employers or other delegated directors of Action Learning programs, behavioral objectives and the means by which these objectives are to be achieved. Techniques of evaluation can be developed and applied. At the present time the G.E.D. test is used nationwide to measure the educational development of young adults and old adults who apply for high school equivalency certificates. Decisions as to how much credit should be given can be worked out with no difficulty.

4. Additional public service jobs that need to be done can be created for youth. It is important, however, that they be real jobs, that they be jobs on which the youngster can acquire skill, good work habits, and good attitudes. Supervision must be as demanding as for any other job. The same is true in the case of private industry. The danger is not in that the youngsters will take over so many jobs that wages will be depressed or that adult workers will be out of work but that it be "made work," that because it may be subsidized, it is regarded as supported by "soft money." If this is the case, it will not be educative, but to the contrary. As a matter of fact, there should not be a great flow of youngsters into "Action-Learning." It should not be for the majority of youth. If it became too widely used it could reach

the point of absurdity. I don't believe the Council will support "deschooling." The main thrust in public education is to improve the schools and then make them more responsive. Action-Learning programs are for those that cannot profit from the schools even as they become more responsive to individual needs.

5. There should be no adverse effect upon maintaining "professional standards." Professional standards for teachers are undergoing close scrutiny. There is a strong move toward the development of performance criteria for entry into the teaching profession as well as for advancement and retention in the profession. Teachers and supervisors employed by the local education authority who are working with employers will certainly have to meet the established standards and those teachers in proprietary schools with whom contracts are made will also have to meet certain requirements agreed upon and approved by the state agency.

I don't see how this could weaken the bargaining position of teachers; there will still be a substantial number of teachers in the schools and bargaining is nothing new to industry. Although the organized teaching profession may express some concern with this problem there is no reason why it should make any difference unless, indeed, there is a "deschooling of America." But this is unlikely.

6. State laws and regulations can and should be changed to permit innovative and experimental programs such as those envisioned under the concept of Action Learning. Such laws and regulations should provide that a state agency require certain information from the local education agency as to the nature of the proposed program. This information would include (1) the objectives of the plan; (2) methods of evaluation to be employed; (3) policies, standards and methods to be employed in the selection of pupils; (4) policies, standards and methods with respect to the operation of the project including the organization of pupils, instructional practices, the use of teachers and other instructional supervisory personnel, education materials and equipment. Provisions also would be included for periodic reports to the state educational agency and evaluations by the state agency.

In brief, laws should be passed which make certain that the general supervision and control of these programs by the state education agency is maintained. For example, the Connecticut General Statutes passed by the General Assembly in 1971 would be sufficient authorization for the establishment of Action Learning Programs in Connecticut. This is not suggested as a model legislation but as an indication of the fact that state laws can be passed to encourage action learning programs.

A PAPER ON NON-TRADITIONAL MODES OF LEARNING (ACTION-LEARNING)
IN REFERENCE TO SECONDARY SCHOOL ACCREDITATION

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Disclaimer

This paper is not an official statement of the policy of the NCA Commission on Secondary Schools in reference to the acceptability of non-traditional modes of learning. The Commission's stance is still being formed, as it begins to gain more experience with education beyond the confines of the schoolhouse. While the NCA Secondary Commission has demonstrated considerable receptivity to new learning forms, it has had little occasion to take formal action on or official cognizance of action-learning modes of secondary education.

Nor should this paper be considered an exposition of the discernible trends in thinking on action-learning among secondary school accreditors across the nation. As the Executive Secretary of the NCA Secondary Commission I can speak to some purpose concerning those developments but the nation is too broad and the secondary school accreditation community too diverse for me to extend my own thinking and the experiences of my Commission beyond the confines of the North Central Association. I am certain that some of the executive secretaries of the other school accrediting commissions throughout the country would differ vehemently with several of the positions I have staked out in this paper.

Delimitation

Obviously, the concept of non-traditional modes of learning is far broader than that of action-learning itself. The whole field of alternative schools, correspondence courses, general television instruction, non-institutional-based independent learning -- the de-schooled society -- opens when one considers the full scope of non-traditional modes of learning.* Even beyond this, there are

* Attachment A to this paper is a plan of action on alternative schools, prepared for the Administrative Committee of the Secondary Commission. The plan was adopted and steps are now being taken to develop accreditation standards and procedures for non-standard schools.

some seminal thinkers on the frontiers of American education who are contemplating strikingly new definitions of what it will mean to learn, to be educated in the world of tomorrow. But though we would be well advised to give some heed to those potentially prophetic voices, our major concern must be with the actual and substantive changes now fermenting in our schools. Thus this paper will focus primarily on action-learning as it is broadly delimited by the sponsors of this conference.

Some Personal -- Quizzical? -- Observations on Action-Learning

It is difficult to arrive at any consensual definition of action-learning, for at this period of flux in the development of the concept, the term is almost Alice-in-Wonderlandish, meaning precisely whatever the writer wants it to mean. But it would seem to me that the broad outline of some positive meaning is beginning to emerge and some common understandings starting to cluster around the term. I would like to describe my own perceptions of what action-learning should signify.

I would define action-learning to be direct learning accomplished within the context of meaningful, significant, and non-factitious life experiences. It is an effort to expand the learning processes from the straitened and artificial classroom situation out into the community and society as a whole. It is a much-needed endeavor to regain that critical element of reality that had marked the learning of young people throughout the ages, prior to their cramped segregation in the youth-apartheid classrooms of the garrison schoolhouse. Its major stress is on direct and immediate experience, as opposed to the greater levels of abstraction and removes from living reality that predominate in the classroom.

But action-learning must be more than merely experiential if it is to have vindication as authentic learning. It must be an organized experience, a self-conscious and self-contemplated experience, a sequential experience. Above all else, it must be a purposeful experience. Now this is not a covert plea to drain the sap and marrow from action-learning, to recapture our eloping students for the "educational establishment." Rather it is an urgent reminder that not all experiences are meaningful learning patterns. Worthwhile preparation for life in the complex society we have created requires far more than merely simplistic chance, kaleidoscopic encounters in the "real" world.

While at the secondary school level action-learning encompasses for adolescents the practice and the experimentation with adult roles through immediate relationships with older people (models) in some common enterprise, it also has implicit values for young children at all stages of their development.

Essentially, it is an effort to repair to some small degree the wholeness of life, to make learning at any age a meaningful part of life rather than the jejune and barren preparation for an improbable and deferred life at some later date.

To narrow the focus, in my thinking a valid action-learning program would demonstrate the following characteristics:

1. It would take the student at strategic times during his educational career from the reality-avoiding, sheltered, perhaps stultifying confines of the schoolhouse into the bustling community and society at large.
2. The main purpose of action-learning would be motivational -- to help the student escape the artificiality of the schoolhouse environment and to interact with older and younger people in the real world, thus paralleling some of the historic learning patterns of humankind.
3. Action-learning would provide the student with a sequence of direct experiences in actual social contexts, be they service, work, politically, culturally, or intellectually oriented.
4. The student would be given the occasion and the requirement to be self-reflective about the experience, seeking to discover its fullest meanings for both himself and for society. Also, the student would be encouraged to determine what further skills and understandings he requires to increase his own contribution to the particular task at hand and to enhance his own personal involvement.
5. Action-learning would be exemplified by, but not limited to, work experience, work-study, community service, tutoring situations, and the like. Actually it is a genre of learning, rather than a specific program or format. There appears to be a danger of linking it too closely with career education, which has narrower objectives and more circumscribed purposes than action-learning. Action-learning is a viable means for the achievement of a wider variety of learning goals, not least of which are those understandings and values that fall within the affective domain. Career education, with its more restricted vocational ends, is simply one small component to be subsumed under action-learning as a major and emergent learning modality.
6. As a means of instruction, action-learning would be used wherever appropriate and applicable for the particular student. Not

only would he learn social, physical, and vocational skills on the job, but also under proper circumstances some academic learnings should be undertaken by this method. The persistence of many of the pioneer schools-without-walls attests to the feasibility of this mode of instruction/learning for the full panoply of the disciplines -- with the reservation to be noted immediately below.

7. While action-learning would thread its way through the student's education from his earliest school years and perhaps be one of the most pervasive elements in his general growth, in essence it would enhance and not supplant formal, vicarious learning. Not all learning tasks can be mastered as expeditiously by direct experience as through the systematic and didactic approach that marks the conventional schooling. This is especially true in relation to the highly symbolic cognitive forms of learning.
8. The key to the success of any action-learning program would be the careful monitoring and guidance of the educational growth of each student. The proportion between action-learning and the more traditional schoolhouse instruction would be determined for the individual student dependent on his unique needs and requirements. In consequence, diagnosis, prescription, guidance, and counseling of the student would be the major pedagogical responsibility; close concern would have to be taken to make certain that all the various experiences of the student -- be they action-oriented, classroom based, or laboratory-simulated -- summated into optimum growth and development for him.

The important conclusion I would reach here is that action-learning is not to be considered an exclusive alternative to formal schooling, but rather as another valid teaching/learning modality, one of exceptional vigor. Moreover, it should be used only when it is clearly appropriate and desirable for the individual student at that particular point in his educational career. It would be a tragic mistake, indeed a reprise of the gross error that in the past led American education into the prisons of its own schoolhouses, were we educators to establish a procrustean pattern of action-learning that all students would have to follow in an invariable sequence. The goal is to import flexibility, vitality, dynamism into education, not to repeat the dreary, juiceless mass productions of the past.

Friend or Foe? School Accreditation and Action-Learning

My assignment was to consider whether the new educational formats being sired by action-learning can accord with regional accreditation. What stance can we expect the regional accrediting associations* to take as they watch learning elude the school-house and scurry into the market places, the rooftops, and the forums of society? Can, should, and will regional accreditation, which essentially is the self-policing of the profession concerning its own schools, accommodate its standards to the unfamiliar formats of action-learning?

Before I attempt to answer that question, some of the fundamental assumptions upon which school accreditation is based should be examined. These assumptions are too often ignored by those who would gratuitously indict regional accreditation for rather chimerical malfeasances. The sweeping changes that have occurred in secondary school accreditation this last decade are also too frequently ignored.

The governing assumptions -- and practicing principles -- of regional accreditation are:

1. There is a profession of education, no matter how poorly we may practice it at times. This means that as educators we know more about -- and can better promote -- the learning processes than can those not similarly trained and experienced.
2. The profession as a whole is capable of determining those preconditions that have to obtain in learning situations if meaningful and effective learning is to take place.
3. These preconditions for effective learning become the standards for school accreditation. Thus the profession acts in a voluntary, non-governmental, non-official capacity to ascertain whether the learning situation provides fair potentiality for student growth.
4. Accreditation exists before the fact; that is, by its very nature it must deal with input and process factors. It is a prediction that some educational good things well can

* Note that all references to regional accreditation in this paper relate only to secondary school accreditation. Regional accreditation of post-secondary institutions differs substantially from secondary school accreditation. The two should not be confused.

happen, rather than a final seal of approval that the school has fulfilled completely the mandate imposed on it by society and itself. (What social institution ever does fulfill completely society's mandate?)

5. Product and output evaluation are vital aspects of accreditation, but only to the extent to which they validate the fact that the stated preconditions do indeed relate to effective education. And because of the multiple-causation factor, one is well advised to tread cautiously when affiliating a cause to a result.
6. Hard data are difficult to come by in any human enterprise. In most social activities, we proceed on the advice of experts and the counsel of the professional, not on irrefutable facts. Indeed, in a value-laden situation such as education, where the very goals to be sought are hotly controverted, facts have a peculiar fashion of becoming ex parte.
7. Though it focuses on antecedent factors and relies on professional judgment, regional accreditation can discriminate, if only grossly, good educational practices from inferior ones. Its task, then, is to eliminate unproductive practices and to foster those that augur more effective learning.
8. Regional accreditation can be indissolubly wedded to no particular type of teaching/learning modality. It must accept and assimilate into its standards everything that comprises sound and true education. And when procedures that formerly were effectual become counterproductive, it must seek their abandonment in the schools.
9. The catalog of the educational mutations that have flared, spluttered, then expired in the last three decades is a soberingly thick one. Not every self-proclaimed innovation is necessarily salutary. In the dust and din of day-to-day labor, it is not always easy to identify educational truth and reality and virtue at first blush -- and there's the rub.
10. Nevertheless, it is an established fact that the regional accrediting associations at the secondary school level have been increasingly hospitable in recent years to the new forces now working in American education. While it would be an over-statement to aver that the regionals have altered their role from that of the guardians of the comfortable past to one of catalyst for change, at least they are moving in that direction. (Some of us would like to see the pace quickened a mite.)

11. Since the burden of professional judgment is obviously shifting towards wide acceptance of action-learning as a legitimate educational experience, it is highly likely that most of the regional accrediting commissions will soon give explicit approval to this learning format, if they have not done so already. However, it might be well to note that even here regional accreditors share with their educational colleagues some unexamined assumptions about the implicit values and worth of action-learning. It seems a good development to us, but we still must proceed on a pound of professional faith and a dram of data.

The Present Stand of the NCA Secondary Commission on Action-Learning

Under the new accreditation standards for secondary schools adopted in 1969, a member school may grant full credit for independent study programs. This has been construed to mean that a student may be given credit for out-of-school experiences that the school considers meaningful and educative, or for unusual in-school experiences as well, such as working as a laboratory aide, an aide in the library, or as a tutor. The decision as to whether the experience warrants academic credit rests with the school, as does the justification for that decision.

Another provision permits credit by examination, based on proficiency performance on a test which the schools considers to cover the content normally included in the regular school course. In this fashion, a student may acquire skills and understandings in an action-learning situation, then have these certified by examination, thus earning credit.

Of course, work-study and work-experience programs, supervised by professional members of the school staff, would fall under the standard provisions for earning credit and hence would cause no difficulty. But even service projects, involvement in civic affairs, and similar experiences can be granted academic credit under the above-mentioned stipulations, provided the school deems them to be of significant educational value. The major concern of the NCA Secondary Commission is that the school's professional staff retain the final decision in this matter, subject, of course, to some legitimate probings and queries by the respective NCA State Committee. The intent here is to have the school explain, not necessarily defend, the basis for its judgment. (In the 1971 Inventory of Newer School Practices conducted annually by the NCA Secondary Commission, some 225 schools reported that they accorded academic credit for community activities and 338 schools granted credit for school service activities.)

It is probably safe to say that the NCA Secondary Commission operates on the following principles in regard to action-learning and the other new learning modalities coming to the fore:

1. If the experience has proved educational values, it is and should be creditable.
2. The determination of whether a learning experience relates directly to secondary education, and hence merits school credit, should lie mainly in the hands of the local professional staff.
3. Those learning experiences undertaken beyond the purview of the teachers of the school need subsequently to be verified in some way by the professional staff of the school before credit is to be granted.

Conclusion

The NCA Secondary Commission in recent years has made a serious effort to incorporate the newly emerging teaching and learning formats into its thinking and its procedures. It well realizes that the shape of American secondary education is changing dramatically; it hopes not only to accommodate its standards to those changes but also to participate in the process of change itself. Hence the Commission is acutely conscious of the fact that the former counters of a secondary education, especially the Carnegie unit and the semester hour, while not necessarily obsolete must now share their role with newer ways of acquiring and recording learning increments.

Apart from this function as a promoter of change, the NCA Secondary Commission has another and equally important part to play, that being the need to make certain that whatever or however the young person puts together the pieces of his learning experiences, the secondary education he ultimately attains has meaning and focus and purpose. To engage the student in kinetic activity and a mishmash of inconsecutive experiences, be they ever so florid, then to call this an education would be to do him and society a serious disservice. Secondary education still must be directed growth towards maturity.

The problem for the NCA Secondary Commission, then, is just how it can resolve the dialectic between a surging desire for change and a braking need for continuity, how to relate the broad parameters of education with the more restricted purposes -- call it programming, if

you will -- of schooling, how to balance prime individual freedom with the necessary self and social restraint. This is a tough dilemma, but one that we in regional accreditation share with all other American educators.

Attachment A

THE ACCREDITATION OF ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS:
STANDARDS FOR NON-STANDARD SCHOOLS?

A Position Paper for Discussion
by the Administrative Committee

The Problem

It is not to be disputed that some of the standard forms of American secondary education are in the process of mutation at this particular point in time. Not that the dominance of the comprehensive, standard high school is being challenged, nor those schools being supplanted, but rather many types of variant schools are springing up in response to some of the new forces working in American society. Single-purpose schools, store-front schools, street academies, free high schools, alternative high schools, schools without walls, itinerant schools, job corps centers, and a host of others are all cases in point.

It is not possible to characterize these schools in relation to their overall quality, since the range is wide. Some are authentic attempts to find new educational modalities for some young people, and they are proving to be quite effective within their own given set of circumstances and expressed missions. Others are little more than educational disaster areas, with students, ideologies, and teachers all running riot. Some do indeed offer some viable alternatives to the standard comprehensive high school. Others merely victimize eager young people and their gullible parents in chimerical efforts to be "different."

It would seem that if the Secondary Commission is to fulfill its public duty (that being the development of quality standards for secondary schools, on a voluntary, non-governmental basis), it must attempt to read some order into this perplexed situation. The public has a right to know which of these new-form schools have the potentiality for effective education and which are frankly nothing more than educational bucket-shops.

The more responsible of these unorthodox educators are equally anxious to see standards developed that will help differentiate between the reputable institutions among the non-standard schools and those that can lay little or no claim to proved effectiveness. But the standards they wish to see formulated are those that will not impose upon them "standard" practices, structure, and procedures.

Hence it would seem that the task of the NCA Secondary Commission at this point is to develop standards for non-standard schools -- or, less epigrammatically, to devise ways that non-standard schools of proved quality can gain accreditation without surrendering their own unique features and rationale.

The Operative Principles

The Ad Hoc Committee chaired by Wilbert Mick has shared its thinking with the Administrative Committee. The points underscored by the committee well might serve as the framework within which any effort of the Secondary Commission to accredit these non-standard schools should take place.

In brief review, these working principles are:

1. The basic need is to alter the approach to accreditation for these free-form schools, rather than to futilely attempt specifically to develop standards for them.
2. These schools will be best accredited and evaluated on the basis of their attempts to meet the intent though not the letter of the major standards established for our member schools.
3. The basis of accreditation, both initial and continuing, would have to be an on-site inspection rather than the annual report form process, since the quality and effectiveness of each school could only be determined in light of its own stated purposes and on the basis of the actual situation obtaining in the school.
4. Since frequent periodic examinations (perhaps once every two or three years) are anticipated for these schools, it might be necessary to have them bear a larger part of the costs of these inspections than is true in our normal re-evaluation program.
5. A non-standard school seeking accreditation under these standards would need to have been in existence a stated period of time before its application would be considered by the NCA. This is due to the fugitive nature of so many of these schools.

A Proposed Course of Action

It is proposed that a small Ad Hoc Committee be impaneled to formulate a specific accreditation procedure for non-standard schools. The committee would be instructed to:

1. Amplify the present qualitative principles undergirding each major standard in the Blue Book. These new statements would spell out in somewhat greater detail just what the major intents of each standard are.
2. Carefully define the particular type of school to be covered by these non-standard standards. (Perhaps subschools should be considered as well.)
3. Determine working procedures for the inspection of these schools, including some pro-rated sharing of the costs involved.
4. Develop the forms (hopefully not complex) by which the school would indicate how it is attempting to meet the intent of the qualitative standards.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD
EVALUATIONS AND ACTION-LEARNING PROGRAMS

Jack R. Childress
Vice President Central
College Entrance Examination Board

The Specific Charge

The questions raised about evaluation and the activities of the College Board relative to action-learning lend an optimistic overtone to the concern for testing, evaluation, access-transition information and cooperation. Coordination of the efforts of those who wish to provide changes in educational experience for secondary youth and those who have interests and expertise in evaluation can result in better educational designs and broader acceptance of new programs in academic and public circles. The history of the College Entrance Examination Board gives clear indication of a willingness to aid in the promotion of evaluation and of educational change -- especially as related to transition and access to post-secondary education. Current practices and programs of the Board are directed toward developing aids for better decisions and better judgments of both formal and informal educational experiences.

- "1. What is the current and possible future thinking of the CEEB with respect to accreditation of knowledge achieved through action-learning?
(What would correspond to the ratings of teachers and other professionals? What assessments of affective growth, by either subjective or objective means would be desirable? What effect, if any, is action-learning apt to have on the definition of a high school diploma or the equivalent?)
2. What effect, if any, will action-learning have on open admissions policies?"

Direct, specific and perhaps simple answers can be given to at least portions of these questions by examining past and current activities and actions of the College Board.

1. Accreditation (assessment of individual performance) of knowledge achieved through action-learning has been accepted as a basic principle by the Board. The development of the College Level Examination Program, the work of the Commission on Testing, the establishment of the Commission on Non-

Traditional Study (post-secondary schools) and the joint sponsorship of the Office of New Degree Programs with the Educational Testing Service are all evidence of this concern. They all indicate approval of different styles of learning and the need to provide some evaluative procedures which will give them universal credibility.

2. Action-learning will have limited or no effect on open admission if secondary schools provide direct credit for it or if it is used to meet the requirements for a graduation certificate or diploma. The effect that it will have on students may be pronounced. This generalization will be evident if the processes of learning of individuals going through action-learning have not prepared them appropriately for succeeding academic experiences or if post-secondary schools do not provide programs which allow for readjustment. Testing and evaluation procedures which can provide insights into academic and personal accomplishments will eliminate confusion regarding aptitudes prior to admission.

In addition to these observations, additional comments may be pertinent.

1. The College Board does not have programs or policies which can be said to meet the specific needs of individually designed programs (for students, for isolated schools or for groups of schools).
2. The history of the College Board and the evaluation -- measurement -- testing movement has been one which indicates an interest in and a concern for meeting new educational needs and demands. An adaptability has been evident which identifies success even though current programs and the present "state-of-the-art" may not be developed to the point of giving immediate service to new endeavors.
3. If secondary schools, colleges and universities are attempting to determine general aptitudes for continued academic learning regardless of the procedures or processes used to reach this point, a need is prevalent for some type of evaluative instrument. Regardless of the process or method which has been characteristic of a curriculum or program, use can be made of existing College Board or other testing programs to provide insights into academic achievement. While refinements may be needed, the axiom can be accepted -- they do the job that they purport to do.

4. If educational institutions do not care to identify any cognitive learning skills or if they do not wish to state the goals of programs, no instruments are required to indicate the success of these endeavors. But are the goals so unique and individualized that no normative testing is needed or desired?
5. If educational institutions are interested in giving the public information which will allow it to make decisions regarding success or failure of individuals or programs assessment instruments or techniques can be developed to give some basis of confidence in accomplishments and program.
6. If schools are trying to indicate by grades that something has been accomplished in an academic subject or in a cognitive way, those in charge must be able to say what it is and have means of identifying how success was reached.
7. On the other hand, if academic institutions are trying to indicate success in areas which have never been perceived as a part of the educational establishment, why worry about existing measurement or evaluation techniques? Let the end results be used by others in the way that they deem appropriate to judge accomplishment.

Clear and definitive positions need to be taken by institutions and supporters of new programs on issues and procedures related to assessment and accreditation. If isolation from existing techniques and programs is the desired goal, then all involved should be willing to say so. If an inter-relationship between new educational experiences and the traditional goals of the development of skills and certain academic achievement are desirable (and I believe they are), procedures for evaluating both new and old techniques are available or can be developed.

The College Board Can Help

Organizations like the College Board can work with all academic groups on studies of new goals and changing academic orientations. The question of whether variations in programs are really different in kind should be examined and validity in terms of new goals ascertained. In addition, different base groups may

be designed if normative data is desired -- adjacent suburban communities, inter-city groups, communities across the country, states, experimental associations or those with a multiplicity of characteristics. The actual results of the change must be measured.

The history of CEEB is one of service and adaptability in changing times. The evidence is uncontestable. Programs which are now a part of the services go well beyond college entrance and access.^{1/}

Although the establishment of the Board was influenced dramatically by leading college educators who desired to introduce more order into the transition from school to college, the interests of the secondary schools were not overlooked. Efforts were made to aid the work of the secondary schools by reducing confusion and easing the strain on students. The examinations were secondary to the main purposes of the Board. The latter were to provide a channel of communication between the schools and colleges and to encourage a degree of conformity in the secondary school curricula.^{2/} Building on experiences, the work of committees and new test developments, the Board moved from the giving of specific subject matter examinations designed for admission to individual colleges to more general objective tests. These new programs were based on developmental premises which have been continued through the years and which appear to be consistent with the present innovative curricular designs and action-learning programs. The prognosis for the future appears to be equally good.

The following chart gives a limited picture of the expanded services and programs of this 2,000 institutional member organization which is today's College Entrance Examination Board.

1/ Angoff, William H., The College Board Admissions Testing Program. College Entrance Examination Board, New York, 1971. XIII

2/ Ibid., p. 2.

<u>Program</u>	<u>Grade Level</u>	<u>Program</u>
Deciding I (Guidance)	{ 7 8 9	
PSAT-NMSQT	{ 10 11	----- College Locator Service
Admissions Testing Program (SAT, ACH, SDQ) Advance Placement Program	{ 12 13 14 15 16	Student Search Service Secondary School Reporting Services CGP College Reporting Services Validity Studies
CLEP CSS		

A careful and in-depth examination of these programs will indicate that services are being provided for students, parents, middle schools, junior high schools, high schools, post-secondary schools and the public. The history of the development and orientation of the Board and descriptions of its programs can be followed in many publications.^{3,4,5,6,7/}

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- 3/ Christ-Janer, Arland F., "The College Board and its Role in Change," College Board Review, Fall, 1972, No. 85, pp. 2-4.
- 4/ The Four-School Study Committee. 16-20: The Liberal Education of an Age Group, College Entrance Examination Board, New York. 1970.
- 5/ Commission on Tests. I. Righting The Balance. College Entrance Examination Board, New York. 1970.
- 6/ Commission on Tests. II. Briefs. College Entrance Examination Board, New York. 1970.
- 7/ Christ-Janer, Arland F. "CEEB Seeks Non-Traditional Alternatives for Education." College And University Business, October, 1971. 51:56-7

The basic characteristic of the College Board has been one of change coordinated with a desire to be of service to individuals and to institutions.

Evaluation of Action-Learning and Non-Traditional Study

At the present time, judgments about action-learning are in the same status as positions about non-traditional study on the post-secondary level. "The evaluation of traditional educational programs and students in them has for years been giving education headaches. Non-traditional programs have all of the problems of evaluation in the more typical situations, plus a whole set of difficulties all their own. First of all, evaluation in non-traditional settings has a somewhat different purpose. While the usual goals of evaluation in education -- improvement of the educational programs, clarification of purposes of the curriculum -- apply, one other purpose seems to loom extremely important in the evaluation in non-traditional programs -- namely, establishing credibility. In the first years of non-traditional programs especially, it will be essential to convince others who might be wary -- other educators, employers, potential students, the public -- that flexible, non-traditional programs can still be rigorous and demanding, resulting in graduates of quality."^{8/}

Hartnett continues by identifying two basic problems of evaluation. These include judgments about the growth and development of individual students and about the quality and effectiveness of the program. The latter involves determining whether the competence of those who complete action learning is comparable to those who finish more traditional programs.

The problem is a major one. Program efficiency and individual student quality may be at odds with each other. In order to meet the need of new programs, multiple judgmental programs including some of the traditional measures will have to be developed for proper evaluation of the new programs as well as the

^{8/} Hartnett, Rodney T., "Non-Traditional Study: An Overview." Exploration in Non-Traditional Study. Samuel B. Gould, K. Patricia Cross, Editors, Jossey-Bass, Incorporated, Publishers, San Francisco, 1972. pp. 31-32.

students who participate in them.^{9/}

What happens to students enrolled in action-learning programs in comparison to the accomplishments of other students is the main concern. Thus, a need exists to have a base line from which to work and on which to make judgments. Existing programs can aid in these analyses.

The Future

The willingness of organizations like the College Board to alter, to modify and to change as well as to place programs under the scrutiny of independent groups like the Commission on Tests combined with the desire of institutions to create new educational experiences and programs assures that new needs will be met.

Typical of the recommendations made to the College Board by people on the Commission were those of Edmund Gordon and Alden Thresher. Gordon called for research into descriptive and qualitative methods of testing which would develop "report procedures that convey the qualitative richness of these new tests and procedures to students and institutions in ways that encourage individualized prescriptive educational planning."

He also urged "the development of research that will add to understanding of the ways in which more traditional patterns of instruction will need to be modified to make appropriate use of wider ranges and varieties of human talent and adaptation in continuing education . . ."^{10/}

Thresher recommended that the College Entrance Examination Board "Supplement its present programs with self-administered and self-scored tests, made available to students in great profusion, and accompanied, under various degrees of delayed availability, by reasoned discussions about the choice of an answer for each item."^{11/}

9/ Ibid., pp. 32-34.

10/ Gordon, Edmund W. "Toward a Qualitative Approach to Assessment." Report of Commission on Tests II Briefs. College Entrance Examination Board, New York. 1970. pp. 43-44.

11/ Thresher, B. Alden. "A Proposal for Self-Scored, Self-Administered Tests." Report of Commission on Tests II Briefs. College Entrance Examination Board, New York. 1970. p. 154.

Neither of these designs are operative. They indicate, however, that people and groups are thinking about change. When the question has been raised or the need identified, the potential for resolution is present within the College Board itself.

Summary

The basic premise of this statement is optimism. This belief is based on several premises upon which, hopefully, there will be common agreement.

1. Individuals and groups interested in developing the best educational programs for students will come to agreement on goals of educational programs -- universal, local or consortia. Combined with this will be an interest in ascertaining whether these goals have been met.
2. Individual schools and small organizations which may be attempting innovation and experimentation will benefit by organizational aid in general evaluative procedures.
3. There will be an accurate identification of the role of the College Board, and other groups, in the development of new procedures, in adapting old ones to changing programs, or in confirming present practices as means of indicating success of new educational designs.
4. Studies will be developed to confirm or deny current statements that the existing testing and examination programs do not measure new directions. Comparisons can be made between normative and criteria-referenced programs to ascertain where they are usable and where they are not.
5. Charges will be given to organizations to relate current and developing programs to new areas of study when these are feasible.
6. There will be coordination of the work of all national commissions studying secondary education and all organizations with concerns for testing, measurement and assessment.
7. As a result of such a cooperative atmosphere, a major thrust will be made by those charged with developing new evaluative instruments and materials to meet the need in as short a period of time as possible.

The ability is present to meet new concerns and to accept new obligations. The willingness to share and cooperate must be aligned with this ability. Bickering and inappropriate criticisms should be eliminated. This will result in the acceptance of mutual goals and directions and confidence in the development of answers. The orientation of the College Board in this environment is well summarized by Angoff.

"It seems appropriate, during this time when there are major upheavals in educational philosophy and practice, to look to the future when there will be additional developments on the American, social and educational scene. Some of these developments will represent minor changes with limited impact.

"Others will be major ones that will have a wide and lasting influence. In order to keep abreast of these developments and to maintain the role of the College Board tests as a principle instrument of access to higher education, the Board will continue to expand and revise its testing programs in both the aptitude and achievement areas. The possibility that particular subgroups of students may be disadvantaged by the format and content of College Board tests will always be under consideration. Special studies will continue to be conducted, each designed to answer the question of importance to the educational community and each enlisting the resources of the educational community."^{12/}

^{12/} Angoff. Op. cit. p. 178.

PUBLIC AGENCY PERSPECTIVES ON ACTION-LEARNING

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I. Introduction

Public agencies generally place student action-learning projects as a low-priority concern. They have their own staff members who have training and developmental needs. Adding part-time, young, inexperienced students to the staff requires more attention than most bureaucratic public organizations are prepared to supply.

Nevertheless, short-term student manpower is one way to accomplish jobs that need doing. Thus most agencies have employed young people as part-time employees in the past for the purpose of just getting work done.

Based on three years of arranging, managing, and advocating service-learning internships, the North Carolina Internship Office (NCIO) offers the following comments to indicate why agencies take on students and what some of the problems are when they do.

II. Why Agencies Want Service-Learning Internship Arrangements

1. Public relations are enhanced when university students work with agencies. Students understand and appreciate the worth and problems of the agency and communicate these attitudes to friends once their assignment is completed.
2. Agencies are looking for previously tested and experienced employees, and recognize short-term service-learning internships as useful for screening and recruiting employees.
3. Many agencies discover that the insights and perceptions of the young are beneficial to the work of the organization. Youth "ventilation" within an organization loosens up people and procedures.

4. Some agencies look to university and college faculty to provide considerable supervision, thus easing the supervisory responsibilities of agencies while teaching both a student and his faculty counselor about the way things really are outside academia.
5. As agency employees become teachers and faculty become facilitators of learning outside the classroom, new roles, management styles and relationships emerge. The surprise for agency staff is that the development of close personal relationships with students is one of the strongest outcomes in service-learning experience.^{1/}

III. Issues That Agencies Confront in Service-Learning Internships

How does an agency justify its educational role in service-learning internships?

Agency leaders have no self-image as educators, nor, is the agency usually perceived as a learning environment. Yet evidence from the research of David Kiel, graduate student at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, indicates that once an agency has tasted the possibilities of the multi-dimensional characteristics of a service-learning internship, justification takes care of itself.^{2/} Agencies have a tough time breaking out of the pattern that suggests schools are for learning and public organizations for meeting the other needs of people. The service-learning concept and internship model offer a different view of learning and work. Accepting the role of providing learning settings for students and their own employees is a major issue for agency staff in service-learning internships.

How do you define worthwhile tasks for students?

In service-learning internships, the quality of the task has a lot to do with the excitement and energy that goes into the learning of the student. As a result, agency sponsors are constantly seeking how better to define for students worthwhile tasks that offer responsibilities to the student and some work products for the agency.

^{1/} David H. Kiel, "Student Learning Through Community Involvement," Page 39. Southern Regional Education Board, 130 Sixth Street, N.W., Atlanta, Georgia, 30313.

^{2/} Kiel, op. cit., pp. 39-40.

What are the best ways to recruit and select interns?

Recruiting and selecting interns is an imperfect art at best. In North Carolina, many agencies passively respond to requests by colleges and universities. Other agencies initiate their own programs and evolve their own criteria for recruitment and selection.

These two major existing patterns reveal a lack of conceptual clarity and wide variance in recruitment and selection criteria.

Of over 300 university-sanctioned community-based learning programs identified in North Carolina in 1971-72, very few had consistent criteria for agency roles in selection.^{3/} Likewise, eight state government departments managed their own independent internship programs, and each had a different approach to recruiting and screening.

Experience in North Carolina indicates that recruitment and selection criteria are best determined after program goals are determined and responsibilities outlined.

How do you manage the communications and relationships between the agency and the university or college?

When an agency employs a young person to work part-time, the issue is simple. The young person is hired and put to work doing a job. With university administrative roles interjected in service-learning internships, additional issues are thrust upon the host agency.

More meetings and contacts are required initially so that university and agency folk understand one another and that they both are clear about student needs and expectations.

Role definition with respect to supervision is more complicated. What does a host sponsor do and what does a faculty counselor do? North Carolina Internship Office data indicates hosts are far more important educators than faculty in service-learning internships.^{4/}

3/ David N. Edwards, Jr., "An Inventory of Community-Based Experiential Learning Sponsored, Supported, or Academically Recognized by the High Education Institutions of North Carolina."

4/ Kiel, op. cit., p. 39.

Time constraints require careful planning for a balance among orientation, work, reflection, and evaluation purposes in an internship.

Mechanics can be a bother until acceptable arrangements are discovered. How do you appoint a service-learning intern? As a part-time employee with full benefits? Or as an independent agent under a consultant contract? Can you offer an intern an educational grant or is it simply a personnel cost item? What does the university pay for?

Responsibility and authority are more involved. Who is liable? Student? Agency? University? Who owns the work product of the internships? Who is responsible for follow-through and evaluation?

IV. A Service-Learning Internship Model as a Response to the Issues Raised

The North Carolina Internship Office has managed or initiated service-learning internship programs with twelve senior colleges, who in turn have administered over 1,200 service-learning, internships with over 200 public agencies in North Carolina 1969. These programs and the internships fostered by them have utilized a service-learning internship model adapted from a resource-development internship program of the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB).

As specific aids for conceptualizers, planners, managers, participants, and evaluators the following three items offer a means for better determining expectations, roles, and relationships within service-learning internships.

Internship Style Description Form

The "Internships Style Description Form" (ISDF), numbered items below, was developed in 1972. This form suggests the varieties of possible internship styles, strongly indicating the necessity for clearly defined program purposes and structures, and assists program planners to establish the features that best realize what they want in their internship programs.

1. <u>Program Identification</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Low</u>	
The intern is clearly a part of a special intern program sponsored by an agency or university. As such the intern has clear responsibilities to the intern program.	5 4 3 2 1	The intern is treated as a temporary staff member and has no special status as an intern and no special activities as a member of an intern program.
2. <u>Program Patterning</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Low</u>	
Each internship is based on a general program model with common expectations within the intern-supervisor-faculty team.	5 4 3 2 1	Each internship experience is left to be negotiated with the supervisors and the intern. There are no general guidelines or expectations established.
3. <u>Structure and Role Clarity</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Low</u>	
What the intern is to do is carefully laid out in advance by host agency or faculty supervisor.	5 4 3 2 1	The intern is responsible for developing his/her own role within the agency. No one tells him/her what to do.
4. <u>Agency Task Orientation</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Low</u>	
It is important that the intern complete a specified task during his/her stay with the agency. This task is part of the agency's ongoing work.	5 4 3 2 1	The intern has no requirement to develop a product for the agency. He/she has no specific projects for which he assumes responsibility.
5. <u>Academically Credentialed</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Low</u>	
The intern has clearly defined learning objectives during the internship and has a special relationship with a college faculty member who sanctions.	5 4 3 2 1	The intern does not receive academic credit for his/her work and has no formal responsibilities to any academic institution.
6. <u>Supervisory Arrangements</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Low</u>	
The intern is attached to a single supervisor who has major responsibility for the quality of the intern's experience during the summer.	5 4 3 2 1	The intern may have many different relationships with agency personnel. There is no primary supervisor for the intern.

7. Source of Payment

High Low

The intern's stipend and project expenses are paid by the host agency only.

5 4 3 2 1 The intern's stipend and project expenses are paid by non-agency sources only.

8. Rate of Payment

High Low

The intern receives compensation at a competitive or professional rate. Project expenses are reimbursed.

5 4 3 2 1 The intern must pay a fee to work with the agency.

9. Overview Opportunity

High Low

The intern is encouraged to spend a good part of his/her time learning about the various parts of the agency and the agency's role in meeting public needs.

5 4 3 2 1 The intern is not encouraged to "float" around the agency.

10. Skill Development

High Low

The intern is expected primarily to utilize his existing skills and secondarily to develop new skills.

5 4 3 2 1 The intern is expected primarily to develop new skills during the internship.

11. Cross Cultural

High Low

The internship requires the student to relate directly with people much different from himself.

5 4 3 2 1 The internship does not encourage cross-cultural experience for the student.

12. Personal Reflection

High Low

The internship provides conscious opportunities for an intern to reflect on his own values and his personal commitments to such values.

5 4 3 2 1 The intern is not encouraged to reflect on his values and commitments during the internship.

Components of the Service-Learning Internship Model

Having determined the profile of public-need-based learning program, one can use the service-learning internship model as a means for achieving the desired results.

The "component road map" shown below indicates the institutional and individual participants. This component map allows parties to indicate their reasons for participating, their expectations from the experience, and the roles and relationships they anticipate prior to beginning an internship assignment.

Service-Learning Definition, Thesis and Principles

"Service-learning" may be defined as the accomplishment of a public-need-based task with conscious educational growth.^{5/}

The thesis of service-learning is that serving public need and human need provides a rich context for:

- developing a service-learning life-style;
- increasing our capacity to teach ourselves from experience;
- strengthening our commitments to cultural values;
- honing our skills in goal-setting, interpersonal relations, and work competencies.

A typical service-learning internship is a 10 to 15 week full-time assignment in which work and learning tasks are clearly defined, academic credit is awarded, and some stipend is available.

Each internship has seven distinguishable principles:

1. A specific public task for the student to accomplish;
2. Well-defined learning objectives for the student;
3. Organizational sponsorship by a public agency and a university;

^{5/} See, "A Notebook on Service-Learning," published by the North Carolina Internship Office, 116 West Jones Street, Raleigh, North Carolina, 27603, for further elaboration of the service-learning internship model.

4. Independent contracts specifying expectation, roles of agency and university supervisors, and other terms and conditions;
5. Encouragement for private reflection by the intern;
6. Workshops and seminars with other interns;
7. Accounting of results (i.e., work produced and learning analyzed).

V. Closing Comments

As agencies seek more student assistance and educators seek more public-need-based learning opportunities for their students, other administrative problems develop such as:

1. Students have no adequate source of information about opportunities within federal, state, or local governments.
2. Public agencies have no reliable means of contacting students about agency opportunities.
3. Colleges and universities have many differing, little-known criteria for their programs.
4. Conceptual clarity about what is expected in public-need-based learning opportunities is rare among existing programs.

The working through of these problems in developing non-educational institution settings for student learning and responsibility is a priority need in the decade of the '70's. The staff of the North Carolina Internship Office believe that the direct involvement of youth by giving them responsibilities in the public sector is a benefit to our society. Service learning can be a powerful force in improving our public institutions, developing more competent citizens for the future, and ensuring that our young people care about our society.

III. ACTION-LEARNING RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

If experience is a necessary part of the education of adolescents, both for affective growth and as an integrator for cognitive learning, what responsibility do educational institutions have for prescribing or providing experiences appropriate to individual needs? To what degree is diagnosis of need and prescription of experience possible, now and in the years just ahead? What are the costs and how do they compare with classroom learning? What are the side effects of large scale programs of action-learning on the community and on the labor force?

The following papers discuss these questions and raise others. "Learning From Experience: A Preliminary Report" by Richard Graham provides a progress report on a state of the art study which will be completed in mid-1973.

" Problems in Research and Evaluation of Action-Learning Programs" is Dr. Ernst Stromsdorfer who has evaluated several experiential learning programs. He is the author of the recently published Review and Synthesis of Cost-Effectiveness Studies of Vocational and Technical Education.

LEARNING FROM EXPERIENCE: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

Richard A. Graham
Director of Education Programs
ACTION

BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

This paper was intended to present an overview of recent research on the effects of learning through experience. But the task was too big to complete in the time available and this paper is therefore little more than a progress report which may help guide a more comprehensive report now in preparation.

The summary is based in large part on a computer assisted search of the reports and journal articles on file at the Educational Research Information Center (ERIC). A group of descriptors dealing with: work experience, on-the-job-training, cooperative education, part-time jobs, work study, student employment, volunteers and student volunteers were matched against three other groups of descriptors dealing with:

- academic achievement, grades, accreditation, transfer of credit, and credit by examination
- personal growth, individual growth, affective growth, self-concept, self-esteem, self-actualization, personality development, motivation, individual power, and habit formation
- youth employment, student employment, employment opportunities, job satisfaction, community responsibility, and employer responsibility.

In addition, interviews and phone conversations with researchers and program managers in the fields of work experience, voluntary service and career education led to reports and evaluations not found in ERIC.

FINDINGS FROM THE PRELIMINARY STUDY

Accreditation and Academic Achievement in Action-Learning

The most common practice is to grant academic credit on the basis

of the number of hours or weeks of work experience or voluntary service; generally the equivalent of one classroom hour for each two or three hours on the job. 1/

Except for the GED and the CLEP examinations, there are no standardized bases for granting academic credit for action-learning and the uncertainty about accreditation appears to reflect uncertainty about the purposes of the high school diploma. Hence, college entrance requirements will probably continue to determine the criteria by which many secondary schools will accredit action-learning 2/ though colleges are themselves adopting admissions criteria which place less weight on academic achievement as an indication of the qualities of diligence and self-management required to do college work. 3/ Other indicators of the ability to meet traditional college standards, or to acquire knowledge independently, appear to be needed if action-learning is to become more common. But suitable substitutes have not been agreed upon or widely adopted.

Maximums for Part-Time Action-Learning

There is apparently no adverse effect on academic achievement when the hours per week allocated to work experience or voluntary service have been limited to not more than 15 -- even when the activity is not school related. And, where action-learning is closely related to school work, academic achievement has been enhanced. 4/ Several case studies have suggested that, for some students at least, traditional high school subjects -- mathematics, language skill, and social studies -- can be learned as well in work experience projects, such as auto repair or house building, as in traditional classroom work. 5/ But, though several studies have shown that cooperative education students do as well or better than their counterparts in traditional academic programs, when the entering characteristics of the students are taken into account, as they have in a recent study 6/, no significant difference in academic achievement due to the program can be found. And there is little evidence to indicate under what circumstances part-time action-learning is preferable to full-time on the job learning.

Affective Growth Through Action-Learning

The survey turned up little empirical evidence that action-learning produces the affective growth in adolescents that theory predicts. Data from the several longitudinal studies are only beginning to be analyzed and the many case studies do little more than

suggest the kinds of experiences and the kinds of projects that offer promise. In spite of this lack of solid evidence, action-learning seems to be earning greater acceptance as a means for promoting affective growth for all students but particularly for those who have not been doing well in traditional study.

One recent study ^{7/} suggests that if coping or self-management skills have not been learned by the mid-teens, they are unlikely to be learned thereafter in school or in the home and are best learned on the job. But, the study finds, many young people who lack these skills cannot keep a job long enough to learn them. Hence, the conclusion that there must be opportunity to "fail safely" on the job, that is, to fail without discouragement and come back to try again. The project format thus becomes much like that of a cooperative education program in which there is a period of time -- generally four to six weeks on the job and a comparable time off the job. During the off-the-job, or in-school period, the student, with the help of fellow students and teachers, works on the behavioral problems and skill deficiencies which became apparent during the period on the job.

A study of a Neighborhood Youth Corps projects concludes that young people who have experienced repeated failure in previous attempts at schooling or work need to achieve success before they can reach a personality "tipping point," after which growth can become self-sustaining.^{8/} After the tipping point, optimism and self-confidence can encourage a person to try new things, to work at improving his or her skills. Persons below this point are pessimistic, timid and progressively tend to close off their options.

Self-confidence, optimism, and the absence of anti-social attitudes appear to be predictions of later success. But other studies indicate that many young people -- particularly those who lack these qualities -- have aspirations that are unreasonably high, unreasonable in terms of their present ability to satisfy their aspirations.^{9/} At the same time, their motivation is often low, for they see no clear route to their goals. They haven't had enough experience with success to be optimistic about achieving intermediate goals. Thus, for many young people, conventional schooling appears to do little to foster the qualities associated with later success. Yet recent evidence suggests that the poor and the academically unpromising have drives for wealth and family tranquility as great or greater than the well-to-do and academically gifted.^{10/} The poor, even more than the affluent, believe that work is the way to success and that education paves the way to success in work. But their optimism and, hence, their motivation and application is less. They think they lack the skills both for academic and job success.

Action-learning appears to offer greater variety of opportunity for successful experience and hence, greater opportunity to develop the self-confidence and optimism which tends to crowd out anti-social attitudes. But action-learning provides no assurance of engendering self-esteem and optimism. Experience, it seems, can be neutral or can reinforce self-doubt and pessimism.

Case studies of Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects^{11/} indicate that menial work in juvenile gangs headed by an adult is considerably less effective in developing self-esteem than prestigious work shared on a near-equal basis with adults. These case studies appear to support earlier analyses which indicated that menial work may do little for middle-class youngsters and may have negative effects on the poor^{12/}

Action-learning in voluntary service assignments also produces mixed results. After Peace Corps service, volunteers are less likely to join associations and to take on civic responsibilities than comparison groups who did not go into the Peace Corps. Their anxiety levels tend to be higher, their acceptance of authoritarian values lower. They are less inclined to espouse causes in general but more likely to work for a particular cause. They are significantly less conservative than those who did not serve.^{13/}

Effects of Action-Learning on Employment and Income

Work experience in general does not appear to have a significant long term effect on subsequent employment and income though it does help to establish occupational goals and to reduce job jumping in the first years out of school. And work experience which is part of vocational training for jobs which are immediately available does seem to materially increase the chances of getting and keeping a job.^{14/} Follow-up studies of graduates of these programs indicate that vocational education graduates earn more initially than their counterparts, but that after six years the difference tends to wash out. And after that, the graduates of academic programs tend to earn more.^{15/} This has usually been accounted for by the claim that the most able students have not taken vocational education training but, in some programs, federal guidelines recommend that vocational education be offered only to those who can "benefit from it"^{16/} and this caveat has been interpreted as reason to shunt off to general programs those persons whose language and mathematic skills are substantially below grade level. Hence, employment and income as measures of the success of vocational education and work experience programs have had little meaning because most of the studies have not taken into account the ability and background of the persons entering these programs.^{17/}

Students who have had considerable work experience during high school earn higher wages, report greater job satisfaction, and have only one-fifth the likelihood of being unemployed in the years immediately following high school graduation. They also score higher on accept-

ational information tests.^{18/} But their high scores and better employment records may reflect higher general intelligence rather than greater occupational awareness as a result of work experience. In short, the more able students may get more part-time jobs.

Other findings suggest that coping and functional skills that qualify a person for on-the-job training may be as important to later success as learning specific job skills in school. According to these studies, fifty percent of job openings require no specific job skill training, only trainability as evidenced by academic credentials, standardized tests, or a job interview. Further, less than one in three students who gets specialized skill training in school supervised programs takes a job in the area for which they were trained.^{19/} As a rule, sixty to seventy percent of the skills needed to perform in a job are learned on the job ^{20/}, and, over the five-year period after high school, only one person in five plans to follow the occupation they cited when in school. What's more, there is no particular tendency to move to a closely related career.

The preliminary survey makes clear the need for a more comprehensive study of the effects of action-learning on participants and on school systems, local communities and the labor force. While there are indications that learning from experience will, for many young people, be a desirable complement to formal study, there is not much that can be said about the ways to determine the kind of program that will do the most to meet the individual needs. There are few accepted standards for measuring growth towards maturity and not much application of those that do exist. There is a paucity of information on the cost-effectiveness of such programs as compared to in-school learning. And there are few criteria for selecting exemplary designs from among the thousands of programs now in operation.

Footnotes

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4. "Relevant or Nonrelevant," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, December, 1970.
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6. Stromsdorfer, E., An Economic Analysis of the Work Experience and Career Exploration Program, 1970-1971, prepared for the U.S. Department of Labor, 1972.
7. Walther, R., The Socialization of Youth for Work, prepared for the Secretary's Study Group on Work in America, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1972.
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11. Sykes, R., A Pilot Study in Observational Measurement of Behavioral Factors Associated with Increased Employability of Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Enrollees, prepared for the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1969.
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15. Vincent, H., An Analysis of Vocational Education in Our Secondary Schools, prepared for the Office of Program Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Office of Education, 1969.
16. See Vocational Education Amendments Act of 1968, Section 101.
17. Stromsdorfer, op. cit.
18. Parnes, H. and others, Career Thresholds: A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Market Experience of Male Youth.
19. Ibid.
20. Ibid.

PROBLEMS IN RESEARCH AND EVALUATION
OF
ACTION-LEARNING PROGRAMS

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Introduction

Action-learning represents a refocusing of attention on varieties of on-the-job learning in an effort to provide alternatives to more conventional forms of formal education at the secondary and post-secondary levels. It has as its precursors such educational programs as the Work Experience and Career Exploration Program (WECEP), co-operative vocational education, work study programs of all varieties, and the Neighborhood Youth Corps. Each of these programs attempts to combine formal classroom education with relevant labor market experience and on-the-job education. Such programs offer meaningful alternatives to youth who intend to go to college as well as to youth who find large doses of formal education to be irrelevant for their needs. The wider choice of educational alternatives offered by such programs is commendable in itself since it is clearly the case that human needs and aspirations as well as the potential human investment strategies to fulfill those needs and aspirations vary widely among the population. It seems abundantly clear that the more constrained choices within the educational establishment today do not serve the needs of all persons with equal effectiveness. Nor, could they be expected to, given different human needs, interests and abilities.

Action-learning recognizes a basic economic problem in the educational process. It focuses awareness on the following points:

1. There is an optimum distribution of time spent in formal learning, on-the-job learning, labor market work, non-market work, and leisure. This optimum mix varies over a person's life cycle.^{1/}

^{1/} See Gary S. Becker, "A Theory of the Allocation of Time," Economic Journal, September, 1965.

2. The transition from relative emphasis on one type of activity to another is a smooth process, not a discontinuous one.
3. Each of the five activities above compete for an individual's time, but they are also complementary to each other.
4. Within both formal learning and on-the-job learning, there is an optimum mix between general learning which is broadly applicable to a variety of life situations and specific learning which has application in only one life situation. This optimum mix varies over a person's life cycle.
5. At the same stage in the life cycle of two different persons or groups, the optimum mix described in points 1 and 4 above can differ.

In short, in its ideal sense, action-learning generalizes the basic educational process and eliminates false dichotomies between work and education and between different types of education.

Current Assessments of Social Programs

The objectives of any specific action-learning program must be clearly thought out. Assertions or allegations that such education will positively affect the cognitive and affective domains are not sufficient. For any given program relative to a target population, one must have a clear-cut idea of exactly how the affective and cognitive domains are affected. One should be able to specify the nature of the educational production function, or, the learning curve. Before an intelligently devised program can be established, one should know, or at least have a good idea of, the precise way in which educational inputs are transformed into educational outputs. And, this can't be done effectively unless the objectives of the program are clearly specified for a given set of target individuals or groups.

Evaluation by Experimental Design^{2/}

Since large amounts of scarce resources are involved, not the least of which is the student's time, and since the loss of good will

^{2/} For an effective argument in favor of the experimental design in social research see G.H. Orcutt and A.G. Orcutt, "Experiments for Income Maintenance Policies," The American Economic Review, Vol. LVIII, No. 4, September, 1968.

of the society toward social and educational experimentation is a risk, it seems reasonable at this time to argue for an extensive use of pilot programs and relatively small scale experiments in the area of action-learning rather than to argue for the immediate institution of a full scale program. With such an approach we might then be able to design a better program set and avoid the frustration, disillusionment and hostility which society has expressed toward some programs such as the Job Corps. Past evaluations of social and educational programs have depended almost entirely upon "natural" experiments. That is, once a program has been in operation for a year or so, a case study or sample survey analysis is instituted and, by means of a comparison group, one attempts to discover what the net effects of the program are. This is a valuable evaluation approach and should not be discarded. However, for a number of reasons, this approach is less effective than a pilot program or demonstration project with a built-in experimental design.

Self-Selection Bias. First, in a natural experiment, there is always the problem of self-selection bias. What this means is that the persons who enter a given program may be and usually are fundamentally different from those who do not enter it. Statistically, the two groups are said to come from different populations. Whereas, in an experimental design, one's experimental and control groups come from the same population and are the same in every respect except for the treatment of the educational program. However, self-selection bias implies that the two groups fundamentally differ. The fact that some enter and some do not enter a program implies that their needs differ and their evaluations of the relative costs and benefits of the program differ. For instance, relative to children in the comprehensive school, the children who enter a cooperative vocational education program may attach different psychological weights to such things as earnings, occupational and social status, the value of college education and so forth. In economics, the set of characteristics such as income and status which yield one satisfaction in life, along with each individual's relative weights of these, is termed a utility function. Thus, when we say there is self-selection bias, in economic parlance we are saying that the utility functions of two or more individuals or groups in the analytical comparison differ. Without prior knowledge of the two groups' utility functions, any comparative analysis is beset with serious methodological problems from the very outset.

Even when one statistically controls for different characteristics such as sex or socio-economic status, the bias in one's estimate of net program effect can remain if one has no idea of these

relative weights. To argue that no residual bias exists, you would have to argue that one's value systems, motivation and psychological characteristics are appropriately revealed through his more easily measured characteristics such as age, sex or ethnic origin. This argument is difficult to support. In a current evaluation of the cooperative vocational education program in Dayton, Ohio, it was discovered that students who enter the program not only select themselves into it, but are carefully screened, with the result that they have higher IQs on the average and different tastes and propensities for work while in school. It is easy to statistically control for IQ or work propensity but this study still cannot account for the fact that co-op students have different utility functions than students from the other comprehensive high schools. For instance, it is apparently the case that co-op students are less likely to go to college than comprehensive high school students. The question is, does this represent a negative effect of the co-operative vocational education program? One cannot tell, for surely one of the main reasons why a student enters the cooperative vocational education program is to accelerate his entry into the labor market rather than to go to college. He is likely to be a person who puts college education further down in his scale of priorities. The same problem exists in a comparison of earnings, occupational status and other indexes of program performance.

Given the current state of the art, the only way to overcome this fundamental problem in an evaluation is to provide for random assignment to an experimental and control group from among the eligible population of persons a given program is intended to serve. Such a methodology was attempted in the design of the Work Experience and Career Exploration Program. However, the intent of the program designers was partially defeated by some of the teacher-coordinators and others responsible for the implementation of the program at the local level. Apart from the usual errors due to bad communication or misunderstanding of the experimental intent of the program, the major problem was that some principals, teacher-coordinators and one or two state directors of the program were philosophically opposed to withholding the program from any eligible and deserving student. Thus, the experimental design of the program was violated to some extent. To these persons and others like them who may have moral and ethical misgivings about using the experimental design on human subjects for the reasons stated above, it should be pointed out that educational resources are always scarce. Thus, if we do not carefully experiment in order to discover true program effects, we may find ourselves devoting large amounts of resources to social and educational programs which do not work in the way we intended for the groups we intended to benefit. This represents a

partial or total waste of resources which effectively excludes many more socially and educationally deserving people. The ethical and moral questions raised by this problem are just as serious as those arising from social experimentation in education.

Flexibility of Program Design. Next, the establishment of pilot programs or demonstration projects with an experimental design will allow the testing of various combinations of program inputs on specifically selected target groups. It is often the case that in natural experiments there are too few observations on a given target group. This is the case for black males in the cooperative vocational education program in Dayton, Ohio. With insufficient observations, it is not possible to estimate stable relationships among program effects. Also, since in action-learning we are interested in developing the optimum mix of formal and on-the-job learning for a variety of target groups, it would be possible to allow for a variety of combinations of formal and on-the-job education. This would ensure the ability to statistically determine the optimum mix for a given target group. Much greater depth of analysis can be achieved. In contrast, in a natural experiment, it is not always possible to analyze all the most relevant combinations of inputs.

In addition, it would be possible with this approach to clearly establish directions of causality. For example, economic analyses of education are plagued with the problem of determining whether high incomes are the result of high education or whether those with high incomes simply acquire more education. In a similar vein, with cooperative vocational education, it is not clear whether the shorter job placement period of graduates is due to higher skill or productivity derived from the program or whether it is due to placement activities not associated with education per se. This could be overcome in an experimental situation.

There are, of course, problems with an experimental framework, one of the most notable being the "Hawthorne effect." It can often be the case that students may do better in a work study or a WECEP program because they are simply given more attention -- they are conscious of being at the center of the stage. Then one cannot tell whether it is the program inputs or the psychological reaction to being a part of the program which is responsible for behavioral or educational changes. With respect to the WECEP program, it may be the intensive attention which the teacher-coordinator devotes to each student and not any substantive effect such as acquisition of skills or knowledge or improved counseling that results in improved scholastic performance. One way to adjust for this problem would be to treat the control group in a similar way -- that is, pay a lot of attention to it but give it placebos in the process

rather than substantive treatments. If it was just the attention which was the critical variable in the process this would soon become apparent. Of course, the information that increased individual attention improves student performance would be a valuable addition to our knowledge of how to help alienated or otherwise disaffected youth, even if benefits did not materialize from other aspects of the program.

In summary,^{3/}

A well-developed experimental approach has some problems of its own but can overcome uncertainties of the above types by virtue of our ability to draw random samples of experimental units from populations, use randomization in assignment of treatments to experimental units, and obtain unbiased estimates of population characteristics from sample characteristics.

Conclusion. Action-learning is clearly a relevant educational strategy. It is relevant in particular since it recognizes that the optimal allocation of a young person's time between formal learning, on-the-job learning, leisure and work will vary from person to person and from group to group. It thus seeks to expand available learning alternatives in society.

However, given the state of our knowledge about how learning programs can be translated into effective social legislation, it seems reasonable at this time to embark on a series of careful educational experiments rather than to push for full scale funding of a vast social program. Ultimately, if such experiments are properly set up and evaluated, the needs of American youth will be much better served.

^{3/} Orcutt and Orcutt, *ibid.*, p. 758.

IV. ACTION-LEARNING PROJECT EXAMPLES

The following abstracts of conference papers provide examples of action-learning at elementary, secondary, junior college and college level. They represent several approaches to project administration and funding: one is supported by a private foundation with federal assistance, two are state supported, and one is conducted by a private university with federal support. Budgets range from less than \$50 per participant per year to \$5,000 per student per year. The complete reports on these projects are available on request from the authors.

DUO - LEARNING BY DOING

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"DUO" -- Do Unto Others -- is an experiential learning program currently offered at several dozen high schools in the state of Vermont. Created by Peter Smith, graduate intern at Harvard when Harvey Scribner was Vermont Commissioner of Education, DUO's basic concept was approved by the State Board of Education in 1969, and has in three years been modified by a number of secondary schools in order to make the notion of learning outside the schools more palatable to teachers, administrators, school boards, and the community.

At Champlain Valley Union High School in Hinesburg, Vermont, we raised the DUO umbrella in January, 1971. That semester seventy students participated in a number of projects varying in time given by the student, anywhere from one half day a week for a semester, a full day (which is the most popular option), to a "full DUO" of eighteen weeks. Thirteen students did not attend classes inside the school at all, but instead served in Educational Television, the State Hospital at Waterbury, a drug rehabilitation center, the Medical Center in Burlington, Head Start programs, local retail stores, garages. Several students served apprenticeships to craftsmen, a butcher, a photographer. In short, the DUO umbrella covers most any experience that a student can devise with the guidance of his parents, his teachers, community resources, and now, the counseling staff of the Direction Center.

The umbrella has spread. It covers tasks as varied as running the complete process of maple sugaring in the Spring to programming the computer for a campaign in the state of Vermont. The one and only high school computer expert has donated his mathematical skills to a political social service. It seems hard to believe that back in 1971 Martha Warner in the Social Studies department and myself in English were actually recruiting students in the high school, persuading them to go outside the walls of the institution in order to grow by doing, learn by experiencing. But it was true. For our young people as well as our teachers, as well as parents, still held the notion that real learning is a book, is homework, is a test, is occupying space and time in one or two buildings for twelve years. There were the natural seekers after experience, of course, those bored to death in classrooms, turned off, apathetic. Some of those souls sought us out in order to save their sanity.

As more and more young people have chosen learning programs outside the school -- about 250 last year -- the school and the

community, parents, have recognized the impact of this program on the institution itself: over-crowding of classrooms and core facilities could be alleviated if valid learning programs existed in the community; and school budgets would have to include funds to maintain the in-school DUO personnel and the transportation costs, in order to facilitate the DUO program.

When citizens in the four-town union high school district voted down the famous 45-15 calendar and its budget in 1971 and were subsequently asked by the school board to come up with a viable alternative to the space problem, the Citizens Advisory Group recommended that the high school budget include \$20,000 annually for a Direction Center which would provide students with learning opportunities in the community. In less than a year, the DUO concept had caught on: parents and community agencies and schools were enthusiastic about this new collaboration of the young and the adult in work, social service, and in a variety of mutual learning experiences. The Direction Center at Champlain Valley currently has a full-time Director, a full-time secretary, a part-time teacher-counselor, and one vocational teacher assigned a teaching position to recruit work experiences in the community; in addition, two graduate interns from St. Michael's College are serving on a part-time basis as counselors to our DUO workshop groups. The workshops meet twice monthly, small groups of students on similar DUO projects, coming together to share their mutual interests and problems on the job. We want to build up a sense of support among them, of caring for one another, as well as providing them with information and advice from community specialists who will join the workshops from time to time.

As schools open within and change their inner structures, break down existing "departmental" and fragmented learning barriers such as "courses"; as individuals are treated as clients with real needs and interests and potentials to be developed in a one to one educational diagnostic relationship; as learning is conceived as programs rather than as courses of studies; as educational decisions are made by all the constituencies of the learning community; as the school year opens up and becomes "learning experiences"; as credits widen and hopefully diminish altogether; and as the classroom moves into the auto shop and the X-ray unit of the hospital, and the chemistry lab at the University, so also must community attitudes and hiring and insurance and liability practices change. Educational funding must change, move from the archaic property tax to a national and state funding of community learning experiences, businesses and agencies receiving tax deductible credits from government in return for providing training and service experiences for our young people.

UNIVERSITY YEAR FOR ACTION
"THE TEXAS SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY MODEL"

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The concept of volunteerism, except during emergencies and in periods of immediate need, is relatively new to the poor and to minorities. Essentially, volunteerism is viewed in the minority community as a middle class concept. This reality has consistently created problems in both domestic and foreign volunteer programs. To some extent, the University Year for ACTION program has provided a mechanism for expanding this concept of volunteerism into a legitimate experiential learning concept.

Texas Southern University is a major black university located in the center of an urban ghetto. Four years ago, through an annual Mid-Winter Planning Conference, the institution started the process of redefining its mission as an urban university. The University Year for ACTION program provided an opportunity and a mechanism to test the "goodness of fit" between programmatic innovations conceptualized by academicians and the needs of the urban community.

The students who enrolled in Texas Southern University as University Year for ACTION volunteers were graduate and professional students. The majority were underemployed, unemployed, unlikely to be employed. Only a small percentage were working and most of those expressed disenchantment with the meaning of their work. Others recognized that their education had prepared them inadequately to cope with the complexities of the systems that shaped their destiny. Still others were completely alienated from these systems and saw in U.Y.A. an opportunity to work for change.

The community saw in the U.Y.A. program a manpower source, access to the resources of the university and an opportunity to involve a broader cross-section of the community in seeking some resolution to the vicious cycle of poverty. College graduates, committed to a full year of community service, were viewed as a "new, creative and dynamic resource."

The community agencies selected to participate in the first year represented a cross-section of institutions created and operated by minorities to serve the interest of the minority communities. Some were in their infancy, some were institutionalized

in the traditional social service concept while others were building new institutional concepts. All were struggling -- all had problems.

The program design was developed by community representatives, faculty, students and administrators. Representatives of each of these groups determined jointly the priorities for the program. The job descriptions were developed by the agencies and volunteers with some assistance from the faculty and the U.Y.A. staff.

Three major institutional changes were initiated:

1. Negotiated credit [system whereby the faculty member gives student a list of competencies to be achieved, the student develops a proposal for his volunteer work assignment relating the job description and the competency goals. This proposal is submitted, and the professor and student negotiate until a consensus is reached.] The underlying assumption for encouraging this strategy was that educational institutions are committed to the development of competence rather than passing or failing as the criteria for success.
2. An interdisciplinary core of twelve semester hours organized around contemporary issues deemed to have unique relevance to the tri-ethnic minorities of the inner city was developed. The four disciplines are sociology, education, psychology and child development. Students were enrolled each term in three core courses.
3. The methods of granting credit are determined by either the department as a whole or individual faculty members and students.

Any reporting of results from a program that has operated less than a year is necessarily limited and incomplete. [The community agencies, faculty members, and students evaluate the program on several indices.]

Conclusions

Experiential learning is performance based. A great deal more needs to be known about what the performance expectations are that signify that a student has "learned" by all participants in such a venture. Much more needs to be known about "what needs to be learned"

and before this can be done some hard decisions must be made about "why" it needs to be learned. The tremendous gap between theory and the application of theory to the resolution of problems must be closed. Greater consideration must be given to the great variation in learning styles among the youth population and they must become partners in making decisions about those things that affect their future.

COMMUNITY-BASED LEARNING
IN WASHINGTON STATE'S COMMUNITY COLLEGE SYSTEM

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The Community Involvement Program is an effort to place students off campus in practical learning situations that will augment the formal training they receive in the classroom. There are nearly 4,000 students taking part this year in Washington's Community Involvement Program, available at each of the state's 27 community colleges. By year's end, program sponsors aim for participation by 10,500 students or about 10 percent of the system's total enrollment.

The theoretical basis for the program draws in part on John Dewey's theory that learning depends on experience and that an "intimate interaction" between learner and environment must take place if learning is to occur. Proponents of experience-based learning say that whether or not one agrees with Dewey, he can accept the idea that "experiential learning" is a valuable adjunct to the traditional "classroom" learning mode and that a combination of both serves to balance and enrich the curriculum.

Another theoretical cornerstone of the Community Involvement Program is the assumption that traditional boundaries between campus and community are rapidly falling away. Community resources have educational benefit and college resources can be of benefit to the community. Campus-community cooperation leads to better understanding and a more enlightened citizenry.

Community Involvement provides a potential new avenue to higher education for those whose previous experiences in education have met with failure. The minority person, the drop-out, the parolee, the veteran who has met defeat in the classroom may find a community-based internship a new kind of education and a way to meet his goals.

The fiscal advantages of Community Involvement are not to be overlooked. One of the objectives in the newly-adopted Six-Year Plan of the Washington community college system is to increase the number of cooperative programs through which colleges share their resources with business, industry, and government. The Community Involvement Program contributes to this objective and the efficiency it is intended to promote.

Finally, Community Involvement provides new opportunities for student involvement in decision-making through its organization structure. The structure, like the overall governance structure of the Washington community college system, operates at two levels -- state and local.

At the state level, a Community Involvement Program State Forum consists of a faculty member and a student from each college. The group exchanges information and recommends over-all program policy.

Statewide coordination is also provided through an office operated at Tacoma Community College. A coordinator and his assistant staff the state office. Their duties include conducting State Forum meetings, processing fund requests from the campus programs, meeting with college personnel to assist in program implementation, and maintaining contact with appropriate state and regional agencies.

At the campus level, a prerequisite to the receipt of state funds is the establishment of a team consisting of students, faculty members, administrators and community representatives. Each team appoints student and/or faculty coordinators to man the Community Involvement Center. Each college is given \$2,000 to help defray the costs of operating the Center. Each staff surveys the community for openings for student interns, maintains a register of placement opportunities and job descriptions, recruits students into the openings, proposes new courses and guidelines to instructional councils and governing boards and makes Community Involvement known to students, faculty, and community. In this way, student and faculty coordinators gain experience in program management and college decision-making processes.

Experience-based learning offers a range of learning options in a time of informational and conceptual expansion. The experiences are predominately service oriented, paralleling the nature of the emerging job market. This learning mode accents process in a time of continual flux; it underscores involvement for a generation with deepening social concern. It depends upon experience to deal with shifting cultural roles. The spread, scope, and experience of the Community Involvement Program in Washington State to date confirms the belief that the very process of human involvement educates.

THE NATIONAL COMMISSION ON THE RESOURCES OF YOUTH

Judge Mary Kohler
Secretary and Executive Director
New York, New York

[Judge Kohler spoke at the conference. The following is a short description of the project she directs.]

The National Commission on the Resources of Youth is a nonprofit organization begun early in 1967 by a group of educators, social scientists, and businessmen. From the beginning, the Commission has existed to spread knowledge of innovations which nurture and utilize young people's talents in ways meaningful to themselves and to their communities. The Commission has assembled descriptions of some 650 participatory youth projects throughout the nation and administers action-learning programs including:

(1) Youth Tutoring Youth (YTY)

Begun in 1967, the program exists in more than 500 cities and allows older students to tutor younger students on a one-to-one basis. Many tutors are in Neighborhood Youth Corps and are in academic difficulty themselves. The emphasis is on the relationship between tutor and tutee, and the tutor's responsibility to develop many of his own ideas for teaching.

(2) Day Care Youth Helper Program

Begun in 1971, this program involves junior and senior high school students taking courses on becoming parents and on child development while working in day care centers. Six demonstration programs are now operating.

The Commission disseminates information through a quarterly newsletter, Resources for Youth, which publicizes youth-participation programs; films, videotapes, slide-tapes and how-to-do-it pamphlets; and conferences held to train teachers, administrators and youth workers on how to develop youth participation programs.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SEMINARS

After the Introductory Session, the Conference divided into 4 Working-Seminars, each containing 20 to 25 members, which spent a 3-hour period discussing one or more major aspects of Action-Learning. Recorders for these Seminars presented oral reports the next day, with recommendations.

Each of the Seminars took a positive approach to Action-Learning. It was generally assumed that such programs are useful for all types of youth, though the most pressing need is for educative activities which are attractive and useful to young men and women who now drop out of high school and do not marry or secure employment.

In brief, the conclusions of the seminars were:

1. Action-Learning should be made available to all young Americans.
2. The NCSE should select some 20 or 30 programs for Action-Learning that are now in progress, and give them publicity and assistance to serve as models for programs in other communities.
3. The NCSE should, by means of regional workshops and publications, provide information on the selected designs and on the means for local adaptation of them.
4. The NCSE should sponsor the development of research designs which, over the next three years, would provide evaluation of the selected designs in comparison with traditional programs on a cost effectiveness basis.

The NCSE will publish a report of the conference including the position papers.

Action-Learning Program Content and Objectives

Action-Learning experience is a useful and desirable educative experience for all kinds of youth, and should be integrated into the total educational program of a community. The work done by students may be paid or not paid, and may be performed in schools, in places of business, in public and community service agencies, in recreational areas, child-care projects, etc.

The criterion for determining the acceptability or the validity of a particular Action-Learning project should remain flexible, so as to foster a wide variety of innovative programs.

Action-Learning should receive graduation credit both in high school and college, and should never be regarded officially as having less "academic" value than the conventional school courses. However, many Action Learning projects can be carried on in connection with a conventional school or college course.

Individual schools and colleges should assume primary responsibility for formulating the goals, objectives, and design of the Action-Learning program that best meets their individual needs.

The school should cooperate with the out-of-school supervisor to work out a mutually satisfactory method of evaluating individual student growth and achievement. Achievement in such programs should be treated as seriously as achievement in a conventional school course. Such achievement should be measured in a variety of ways.

Successful Action-Learning programs depend on the school principal and the teacher or counsellor having a positive, supportive attitude.

Planning and Organizing Action-Learning

"You can't learn to work out of a book" is the Action-Learning theme. Students need the meanings, the satisfactions and the power of work. They need to test learning against life. They want to feel worthy and contributing, to be fulfilled. And they seek alternative roads to maturity, the opportunity to learn in different ways. Action-learning fills these needs.

For whom are the programs designed? The privilege of action-learning should be extended to all students. None should be excluded. The opportunity for choice among alternative programs is essential.

Action-learning must involve authentic experience. The work cannot be make-believe or redundant. The traditional opportunities for Action-learning are found in four areas:

1. Jobs or internships in the private sector. A limited market exists.
2. Jobs or internships in the public sector.
3. Community experts coming to the schools to recruit students for projects.

4. Curriculum-based learning projects involving concrete experiences (field anthropology, office work)

These opportunities, however, will not be sufficient for a growing action-learning program. New possibilities must be created, opportunities that are socially useful and appropriately funded. Students themselves should be enlisted to help identify needs that can become new opportunities for action-learning. They should research the social scene as an action-learning project to develop more action-learning projects. If necessary, funds should be reallocated from current school or youth programs for these new projects.

Preparing Personnel and Operating the Program. Program designs for action-learning require careful planning. This planning, in itself, becomes part of the training process. Expectations, roles, and relationships must be defined clearly for all personnel concerned.

A number of principles should be followed for successful implementation of action-learning programs. These include:

The close cooperation of school and receiving agencies.

A director or coordinator with full responsibility for program implementation.

A careful matching of the student to the action experience.

Funds for travel, supplies, telephones, and clerical help.

An understanding that everyone can teach something of value.

An agreement or contract among the teacher, the student, and the agency identifying the project to be completed.

A wedding of the real world with classroom constructs.

One important new thrust for the school is to create a comprehensive diagnostic service for students. The nature of the student should be carefully assessed along with his goals and those of his family for him. The best learning style for each student should be identified with his assistance. This partnership of school, student and parent to define the learning needs of the student creates a client relationship, motivating the student to succeed. Some students, after assessment, may be entirely committed to a program of action-learning. Others may require no action-learning.

One innovative and successful technique is for students to submit proposals for funding of action-learning projects. After

careful review by a committee, the stronger proposals are funded and the student or student team begins to work.

Helpful to schools is an external advocate or consultant who can bring action-learning ideas to the community.

Legal, Legislative, Financial, and Organized Labor Concerns

Although the ideas and practices of Action-Learning are unconventional, there is general acceptance of the idea by organized labor, the public, and state departments of education. However, some states have restrictive laws concerning which out-of-school activities may properly be supervised, paid for, and created by the school system.

State aid either is or would be available for Action-Learning programs if the local educational agency's program is well designed, well supervised and approved by the state departments of education.

Payment to youth in Action-Learning programs is not mandatory and should not be a requirement since many appropriate activities are voluntary. There is need to explore possible legal problems, such as child labor laws, accident liability and insurance, and workmen's compensation.

Needed Research on Action-Learning

It is the goal of Action-Learning to provide for experiences leading young people to competence and self-assurance in adult social roles. All economic, social, and ethnic groups will find the same values in Action-Learning.

Action-Learning should lead to the development of personal strength as well as to the conventional educational attainments.

Action-Learning is a varied and complex set of experiences which should be studied and evaluated both in terms of the process taking place and the outcomes in the lives of students.

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CONFERENCE ON AMERICAN YOUTH IN THE MID-SEVENTIES

November 30 - December 1, 1972
Washington, D.C.

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